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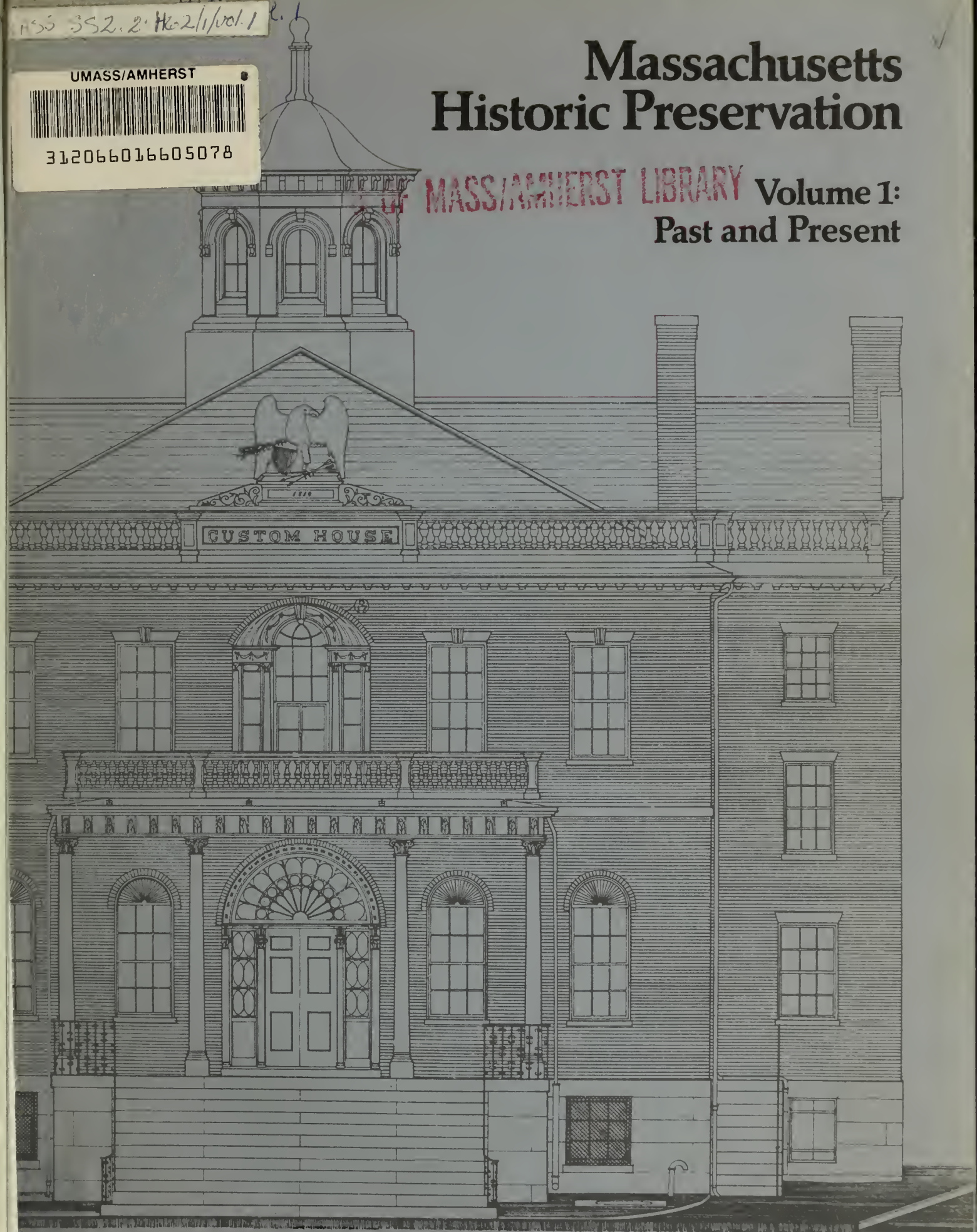


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Massachusetts Historic Preservation

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Volume 1:
Past and Present



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Massachusetts Historical Commission

To: United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service
Office of Archeology and Historic Preservation
Washington, DC

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the document submitted herewith constitutes Volume 1 of the Massachusetts Historic Preservation Plan of June 30, 1975, in accordance with the requirements set forth in the Office of Archeology and Historic Preservation Policies and Procedures, as revised, and in compliance with the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 and that the State Review Board has approved the content.

STATE HISTORIC PRESERVATION OFFICER CERTIFICATION

Elizabeth Reed Amadon

Elizabeth Reed Amadon

Massachusetts State Historic Preservation Officer

The preparation and publication of this volume has been assisted by a grant from the National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior, under the provisions of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966.

The cover drawing was produced by the Historic American Building Survey and depicts the Custom House in Salem.

Massachusetts Historic Preservation

Volume 1: Past and Present

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Bellingham-Carey House, Chelsea

Introduction

This volume is part of the official State Historic Preservation Plan prepared by the Massachusetts Historical Commission with the assistance of a matching grant-in-aid from the Department of the Interior, National Park Service, under the provisions of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966. This volume is divided into two sections, a Summary of Massachusetts History and Historic Preservation in Massachusetts. Other parts of the Plan are Volume 2 (Inventory of Historic Assets) and Volume 3 (Annual Preservation Program).

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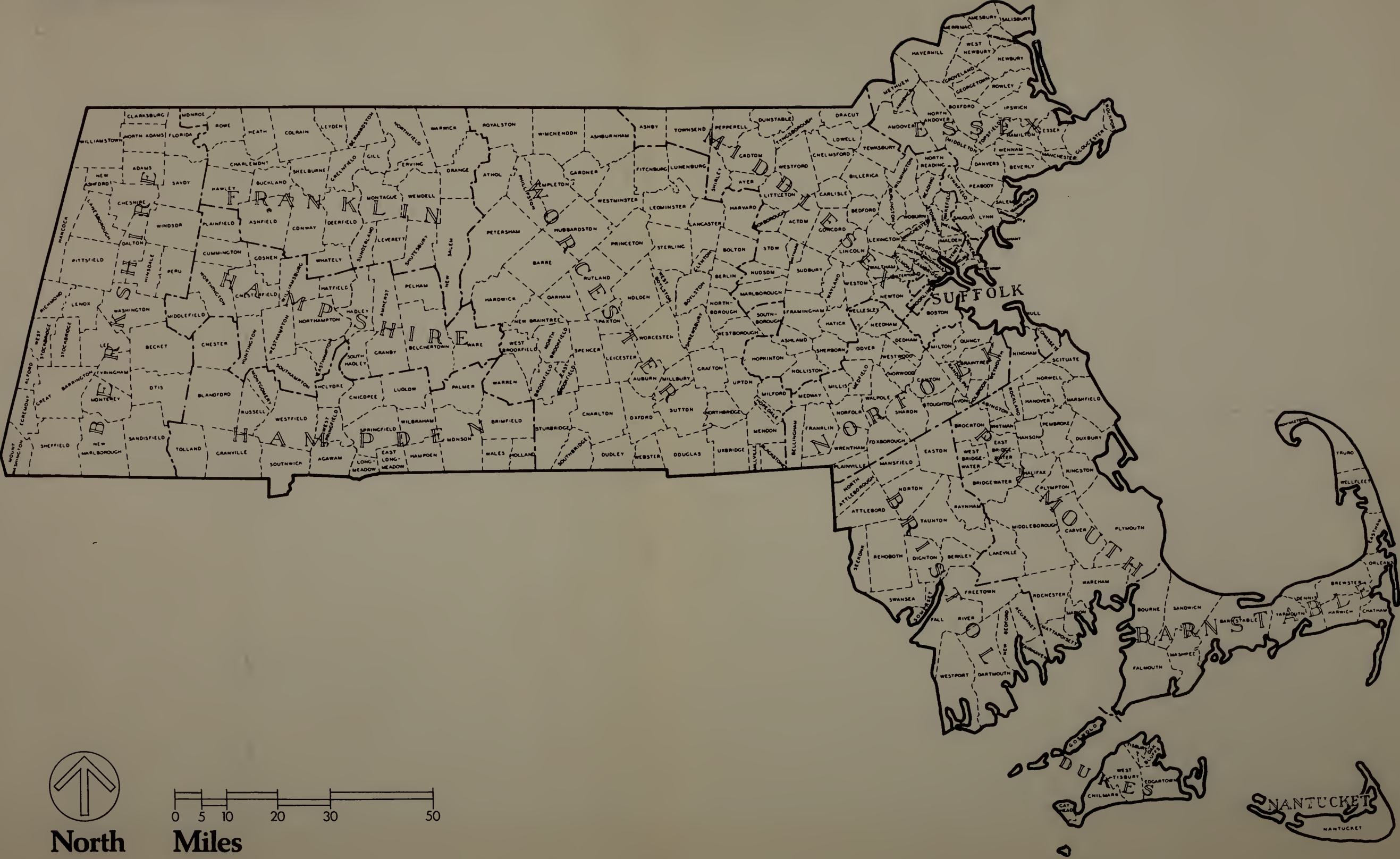
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Cities, Towns and Counties in Massachusetts



Summary of Massachusetts History

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The purpose of this historical summary is to provide background and context for the state historic preservation program and for the inventory of Massachusetts historic assets. The approach is purposely broad, in order to include as many aspects of the history of the Commonwealth as possible.

In writing this summary, no attempt was made to conduct original research in primary sources; rather, accessible secondary sources were consulted.

The author of the original version of this summary was Polly Mattherly Rettig, a member of the staff of the Massachusetts Historical Commission from 1970 until 1973. This edition has been revised and edited by Richard T. Early, Administrative Assistant and Staff Historian. Dr. George R. Horner, Archeologist and member of the Massachusetts Historical Commission, contributed the section on the Indians in Massachusetts.

Acknowledgement is made to the Massachusetts Census Division for permission to reprint the population statistics of the Commonwealth. Appreciation is also expressed to the staffs of the Boston Athenaeum, the State Library of Massachusetts, and the Boston Public Library, for their assistance.

Topography and Geology

In form, Massachusetts is a long, relatively narrow strip of land extending westward from the Atlantic Ocean, bounded on the north by New Hampshire and Vermont, on the west by New York, and on the south by Connecticut, Rhode Island, and the ocean. The state extends approximately between the latitudes of $41^{\circ} 14'$ and $42^{\circ} 53'$ N and covers a total area of 8,257 square miles, of which 390 square miles are water. Massachusetts has four major physiographic features: coastal lowlands, interior lowlands, dissected uplands, and ancient mountain remnants.

The coastal lowlands include eastern Massachusetts with Cape Cod and the offshore islands. The coastline itself, approximately 250 miles long, is marked by a rugged shore--except along the South Shore and Cape Cod--and deep indentations, both evidence of early submergence and later uplift. Among the prominent coastal features are submerged river mouths, a number of good harbors, and Boston, Buzzards and Narragansett Bays. River falls and rapids found further inland are the result of lowering of the coastal plain. The outstanding feature of the coastal lowlands is Cape Cod, which arches sixty-five miles into the Atlantic. This peninsula and the neighboring islands--Martha's Vineyard, Nantucket, and sixteen Elizabeth Islands--are glacial in origin. During the glacial period, the entire state of Massachusetts was covered by the ice sheet, resulting in glaciation of rocks as far as Cape Cod and the islands, where traces can be found of the terminal moraine.

The state's two interior lowlands are the Connecticut River Valley and the Berkshire Valley. The Connecticut Valley extends from the New Hampshire-Vermont border through Connecticut to Long Island Sound. It is drained throughout its length by the Connecticut River, the only large river in Massachusetts that is navigable for any considerable portion of its course. The valley's landscape is marked by curved wooded ridges running longitudinally to the river; these originated with intrusive lava that resisted erosion after outer, weaker layers of rock had worn away. To the west lies the Berkshire Valley, defined by the Berkshire Hills on the east and the Taconic Mountains on the west. The northern part of the valley is watered by streams cutting through the Taconics to the Hudson River, the southern part by the source of the Housatonic River. From Pittsfield north to the Vermont border, the valley is only six miles wide, but southward it opens into broad meadowlands.

Massachusetts' uplands are divided into eastern and western portions by the Connecticut Valley and join north of it to form northern New England's great central uplands. The eastern uplands, mostly Worcester County, gradually rise eastward from the Connecticut Valley to a maximum elevation of 1100 feet in the middle of the state and then slope downward to the coast. This plateau, the southern extension of New Hampshire's White Mountains, crosses Massachusetts into Connecticut.

The western uplands and the Berkshire Hills are a continuation of Vermont's Green Mountains. Deeply dissected, they include several ranges and small valleys. The Taconic Range, along the New York State border, reaches its maximum elevation in Mt. Greylock at 3535 feet and decreases southward to Mt. Washington. The Hoosac range, further east, generally varies in elevation from 1200 to 1600 feet but reaches a maximum elevation of 2588 feet at Spruce Hill. East of the Taconic and Hoosac Ranges, the terrain slopes southeasterly to the Connecticut Valley and is slashed by rivers, among them the Deerfield, Farmington, and Westfield.

The geological structure of the major peaks throughout Massachusetts, from the Blue Hills in the east to Mt. Greylock in the west, indicates that they are the remnants of an ancient mountain range which covered the entire state in the era before the land was leveled to a plain, which was then carved into its present topographic features. Further evidence of the existence of this ancient range appears in the structure and extremely complicated disorder of the gneiss and crystalline schist of the uplands. The Connecticut Valley, in contrast, is composed mainly of shale and soft sandstone, with ridges of intrusive lava as described above.

Massachusetts During the Age of Discovery

The Norse sagas suggest that Massachusetts may well have been the site of the first attempt at European colonization of America. According to those chronicles, Leif Eriksson and a crew of thirty-five men sailed from Greenland in 1003 and brought their ship to three successive landfalls, generally identified as Labrador or Newfoundland, then Nova Scotia, and finally an island somewhere in the Cape Cod area, which they called Vinland. They built a house and wintered here, before sailing back to Greenland with a cargo of dried grapes and timber. In 1005, Thorvald Eriksson, Leif's brother, led a second voyage to Vinland. Thorvald was killed in an encounter with the native skraelings, but his party remained in the island settlement for three years, pasturing cattle on the islands and trading with the natives. Icelandic merchant Thorfinn Karlsefne and an expedition of eighty people lived in Vinland in the years 1010-1013. Though they built additional houses in the settlement and explored the mainland to the southwest, they met increasing resistance from the skraelings and returned to Greenland. The Vinland enterprise ended in 1014 with a fourth brief voyage organized by Leif Eriksson's half-sister Freydis.

While many authorities accept the evidence of the Norse sagas, these early expeditions have little or no relation to later efforts toward European colonization of America. It was, instead, events of the late 15th century through the beginning of the 17th century which laid the groundwork for the establishment of permanent colonies here. During that period, the great maritime nations of Europe mounted expeditions to America aimed at exploration and commercial profit. Though none of these voyages was directed specifically toward Massachusetts until the 17th century, many of them produced maps, ships' logs, sailing directions, and descriptions of the coast which were important contributions to the general knowledge of this region.

The earliest of these voyages of exploration followed close on the "rediscovery" of the New World by Christopher Columbus. King Henry VII of England had been offered the sponsorship of Columbus's enterprise but had refused. After hearing of the success of Columbus's first two expeditions in 1492 and 1494, he authorized John Cabot and his three sons to mount exploratory expeditions of their own. In May, 1497, Cabot and a crew of eighteen sailed from Bristol in the ship Matthew and made a landfall on the northeast coast of Newfoundland, which they claimed for the English Crown.

Reports of Cabot's voyage had a major impact in all the fishing ports of Europe. Ships from several countries were already engaged in the profitable business of supplying Catholic Europe with codfish taken from the waters off Iceland. With the news that Cabot had been able to catch codfish in baskets off Newfoundland, hundreds of ships immediately transferred to the Newfoundland and Nova Scotia banks. Fishermen

seeking a safe anchorage during storms, a supply of fresh water, or a convenient place to cure a catch soon became familiar with the Massachusetts coastline.

English exploration led in turn to expeditions mounted from Portugal. By a treaty with Spain, King Manuel of Portugal claimed all newly discovered lands up to the meridian to a line 1100 nautical miles west of the Cape Verde Islands. Assuming that Cabot's English discoveries were within that territory, he authorized an Azorean, Gaspar Cortereal, to make a voyage of discovery for the Portuguese Crown. In 1500, Cortereal "rediscovered" Newfoundland. On his second voyage in 1501, Cortereal separated from accompanying ships near Newfoundland, sailed southward, and disappeared without a trace. The following year Miguel Cortereal, Gaspar's brother, set out in search of him. Again separating from the rest of his company near Newfoundland, Miguel sailed southward and likewise disappeared. The only clue to his fate is an inscription on Dighton Rock, at the mouth of the Taunton River in Berkley, Massachusetts, which some authorities believe to read "M. Cortereal, 1511, by the Grace of God, Leader of the Indians."

French contact with Massachusetts did not occur until some twenty years after the Cortereal voyages. In 1524, Giovanni Verrazano, a Genoese navigator, sailed under orders from the French King Francois I in an attempt to find a northwest passage through America to the Indies. He explored the coast from Florida to Newfoundland, stopping for three weeks in Narragansett Bay, into which Massachusetts' Taunton River flows, where he met Indians eager to trade. Estevan Gomez, a Spaniard, repeated Verrazano's voyage in reverse in 1525, apparently spending three winter months on the New England coast. The results of the Gomez voyage are recorded on the Spanish Ribeiro map of 1529, including St. Christopher's Bay for Boston harbor, Cape St. James for Cape Cod, the Cape of Shoals for Nantucket Island, and an unnamed indentation on the west side of Cape Cod Bay suggesting Plymouth harbor.

In 1541, Jacques Cartier built a fort on the St. Lawrence above Quebec, which the Sieur de Roberval and 200 settlers occupied for the winter and then abandoned. Jehan Alfonsce, one of Roberval's pilots, reported sailing south in 1542 to a great bay in the latitude of 42 degrees, undoubtedly Massachusetts Bay. Alfonsce's description of these more southern coasts was rendered into verse by Jehan Maillard, French poet royal, about 1547, the first appearance of New England in literature.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert sailed from Plymouth, England, in June, 1583, again attempting to find and secure the northwest passage. He first took formal possession of Newfoundland for the English Crown and then attempted to explore the coast southward but was forced to turn homeward when his crew became mutinous. Though this expedition failed to discover either new lands or the legendary passage, Gilbert set a valuable precedent for later English colonial policy. Before sailing, he had obtained a charter from Queen Elizabeth I authorizing him to discover "remote

heathen and barbarous lands not actually possessed by any Christian prince or people . . . and the same to have, hold, occupy and enjoy," with the stipulation that all settlers should "enjoy all the privileges of free denizens and persons native of England" and that any laws or ordinances that he might pass for his colony "be as neere as conveniently may, agreeable to the forms of the laws & policy of England." Thus, a freeborn Englishman would lose none of his rights of citizenship by moving overseas; and the proprietor of a colony would be constrained to govern according to English law.

With the turn of the 17th century, these voyages began to aim toward colonization as well as exploration and commercial profit. In 1602, a small group of merchants in the western ports of England sent out Bartholomew Gosnold and thirty-two men in the bark Concord to secure a cargo of sassafras, then considered a valuable medicine; members of the expedition also hoped to establish a small trading station or colony in the area. The Concord landed first on the coast of Maine but found no sassafras and coasted southward. On May 18, Gosnold entered Provincetown harbor; while an exploring party landed, the crew caught more codfish than they could use and had to throw some overboard. Gosnold named the place Cape Cod, the first Massachusetts landmark to receive its modern name. A week of reconnoitering south of Cape Cod brought Gosnold to Martha's Vineyard and the Elizabeth Islands, to which he also gave their modern names. On Cuttyhunk Island the party built a sedge-thatched house and a fort. During three and a half weeks the Concord's company gathered a full cargo of sassafras and traded actively with the Indians, who came to them from the islands and the mainland. However, the growing hostility of the natives, perhaps sparked by Gosnold's theft of an Indian canoe, cooled the enthusiasm of the twenty men who had planned to stay and found a colony. On June 17 the Concord and its entire party sailed for England.

Eight months after the Gosnold voyage, Richard Hakluyt, the famous collector of voyages, organized a second sassafras expedition under a Devon skipper, Martin Pring, with Robert Salterne, Gosnold's pilot, as Pring's assistant. Pring's Speedwell and Discoverer put directly into Massachusetts Bay and found around Plymouth harbor an abundant supply of the sassafras they wanted. The natives whom the party encountered were at first eager to trade but, again, soon became hostile. Plymouth appeared to be no safer than Cuttyhunk as the site for an English settlement, and the next English voyage, in 1606, was sent to the Monhegan region of Maine. Following the failure in 1607 of the Sagadahoc Colony at Popham Beach near the mouth of the Kennebec River in Maine, northern Virginia, as New England was then known, was abandoned by the English for another dozen years.

The French had simultaneously been exploring New England with a view toward settlement. After preliminary investigation in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the French founded a colony in 1604 on Dochet Island in the St. Croix River mouth, at the head of Passamaquoddy Bay. Half the

colonists died during the winter and in 1605 the survivors were moved to a much better site, Port Royal in Nova Scotia, now known as Annapolis. In 1605 and 1606, Samuel de Champlain made two exploratory voyages southward from the colony, thoroughly investigating and mapping all the New England shores south to Cape Cod and around it to Woods Hole. His account of these voyages includes detailed maps of such harbors as Gloucester, Plymouth, Eastham, and Chatham. Following attacks by the Indians at Eastham and Chatham, Champlain returned to Nova Scotia convinced that Massachusetts offered the French no site for a settlement as favorable as that which they already had at Port Royal. When an armed vessel from the English colony at Jamestown destroyed the small French settlement on Mt. Desert Island in 1611, that country's efforts at colonizing New England came to an end.

A third nation made a brief appearance along the Massachusetts shore in the first decade of the 17th century and began to lay claim to southern New England. In 1609, Henry Hudson, an Englishman hired by the Dutch East India Company, again attempted to find a northwest passage through America, an idea suggested to him in a letter which Capt. John Smith had sent from Jamestown. Hudson's reports of the Hudson River as a profitable region for fur trading led the Dutch to further activity in the area. In the fall of 1613, Adrian Block and Henrik Christiansen lay off Manhattan Island in two vessels loaded with furs. When one of them burned to the water line, a small "yacht," the Onrust, was constructed to carry her marooned crew home. The Onrust made a shakedown cruise in the early spring of 1614, crossing Long Island Sound and exploring the Connecticut River, Narragansett Bay, and Massachusetts Bay before returning across the Atlantic. Block's map of the cruise, published in 1616, gave the name Crane's Bay to Plymouth harbor and included Massachusetts in the territory designated "New Netherland." On the basis of this voyage, the Dutch subsequently established trading posts on the Connecticut River and did not give up their claim to the fur trade of both the Massachusetts and Connecticut portions of that valley until a treaty was imposed on them in 1650 by the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

The final phase in the exploration of Massachusetts began in 1614 with the arrival of Capt. John Smith, whose enthusiasm for Massachusetts was to exert a powerful influence on the English colonial movement. Arriving at Monhegan in April, Smith separated from a second vessel commanded by Thomas Hunt and sailed southward for six weeks of fur trading, during which he devoted himself to geography. Smith drafted the best and most detailed map of the coast from Penobscot Bay to Cape Cod produced up to that time. The names New England, Massachusetts, Charles River, Plymouth, and Cape Ann first appeared in connection with this map; some of the Indian place names Smith recorded would not otherwise have survived. He also demonstrated that Massachusetts Indians could be successfully fought and afterward bargained with; in an encounter at Plymouth, Smith seized the Indians' canoes and when the fighting was over, returned them to the natives in exchange for beaver skins.

Smith returned to England and spent the remaining seventeen years of his life promoting Massachusetts as the proper site for an English colony. He was the first explorer to make a clear distinction between the barren coast of Maine and the more fertile shores around Massachusetts Bay, describing that area as "the Paradise of all those parts." Though unable to get the leadership of a colonizing expedition himself, Smith was consulted by the adventurers who financed the Mayflower voyage, and his voluminous writings, beginning with A Description of New England, published in 1616, probably determined the destination of Massachusetts Bay Colony migrations from 1628 onward. Smith was also New England's Hakluyt, for his collected works are the best single history of the English voyages to New England. For all these services Smith received no greater reward than the vague title "admiral of New England." He died in obscurity in 1631, never having seen again the country he did so much to acclaim.

There is a strange sequel to Smith's historic Massachusetts cruise. Thomas Hunt, whom Smith had left at Monhegan, made a foray into Massachusetts Bay himself. He kidnapped twenty Indians at Plymouth, seven at Eastham, and then sailed to Spain where he sold the captives as slaves. Among the natives Hunt sold was an Indian named Squanto. Released from slavery through the assistance of a Spanish friar, he found his way to England where he lived for several years in the household of John Slany, treasurer of the Newfoundland Company. Transported out to Newfoundland, Squanto was picked up by Capt. Thomas Dermer, who used him as pilot for a New England voyage. By 1621 Squanto was back in his native Plymouth, with his European education, to welcome the Pilgrims and act as their interpreter.

Plymouth Colony and Massachusetts Bay Colony 1620-1691

15

Though the drive for commercial profit had been sufficient impetus to found a permanent colony in Virginia in 1607, it was not until the mercantile impulse was combined with religious dissent that a permanent English colony was established in New England. During the reign of James I, England was in religious ferment. The official church - - established by Henry VIII with the English Reformation and supported by public taxes and the Crown - - exercised control. Persecution had driven the Catholics underground, and Protestants who did not agree with the official church were subject to intermittent repression. Among the latter were groups who believed that the Church of England could be reformed and purified from within, the Puritans, and others who wished to separate completely from the official church, the Separatists.

The Pilgrims were a Separatist congregation formed at Scrooby in 1606, from which town they moved to Amsterdam in 1608 and later to Leyden. Though the Pilgrims found in Holland the religious freedom they had sought, difficulty in earning a living and concern at seeing their children gradually assimilating Dutch culture convinced the group that it would be better to move again, this time to America. Intermediaries attempted to gain authorization for such a move from both the Dutch and English governments, but with little success. Finally, through an English businessman, Thomas Weston, the group found it possible to organize a joint-stock company of English adventurers, primarily merchants, who would provide enough capital to finance two ships to carry their expedition across the Atlantic. Differences of opinion arose over a proper site for the proposed colony, and some investors withdrew. Other disagreements followed, and to prevent the collapse of the entire project, the Pilgrims were forced to promise that for seven years all profits from the colony would be applied to a common fund to repay the stockholders' initial investment. At this point many members of the Leyden congregation dropped out of the project.

Under the leadership of John Carver and William Bradford, forty-one Separatists (about one-sixth of the Leyden parish, including fourteen children) returned to England, where they would embark for America. Sixty-one others, whom the Pilgrims called "strangers," were recruited by the stockholders in England to fill out the expedition; among them were Myles Standish and John Alden. The company left Plymouth in August, 1620 in two ships, the Speedwell and the Mayflower, bound for land in the vicinity of the Hudson River. Both ships were forced to return to port when the Speedwell proved unseaworthy. In September, The Mayflower again left port, carrying the whole company of 102 people. After a voyage of sixty-seven days, the Mayflower anchored in Provincetown harbor.

Since this was outside the area officially granted them for settlement, the Pilgrims were concerned about the legality of any government they

might establish; before going ashore their leaders improvised a "compact" intended to establish and preserve their authority. Actually a modification of the customary form of church covenant, this document set up a "civill body politick" who agreed to frame "just and equall lawes" and "offices" for the "general good of ye Colonie," to which the heads of families and most of the unattached men promised "all due submission and obedience." Following the provisions of the compact, John Carver was elected the colony's first governor, with authority to legislate, judge, and administer laws with the advice of the church leaders and the guidance of the Bible. Since Plymouth Colony never received a charter, this Mayflower Compact became the basis for its government, and was the precursor of innumerable other written covenants in New England.

While the Mayflower remained in Provincetown harbor, part of the ship's company explored in a small boat and found at Plymouth harbor a cleared area of land which they chose as the site for their settlement. They returned to the Mayflower, brought her across Massachusetts Bay, and entered Plymouth harbor on December 20, 1620, now celebrated as Forefathers' Day. In the course of ferrying people and supplies between ship and shore, the Pilgrims discovered an isolated rock near the mouth of a small stream, now Plymouth's Town Brook. Using this rock as a landing area enabled the Pilgrims to beach their boat without having to wade through the freezing waters. Though the authenticity of the boulder now memorialized as Plymouth Rock is subject to some question, its significance as a symbol of this period of Massachusetts history is undeniable.

Immediately on landing, the Pilgrims began construction of a fort for the protection of their infant colony, unaware that disease had reduced the numbers of surrounding Indian tribes to such a degree that they offered no serious threat to the new settlers. A far greater danger to the colonists was starvation. Food was in short supply on the Mayflower, and the Pilgrims' arrival two months later than originally planned made planting crops impossible until spring. Poor diet and the harshness of the New England winter weakened their resistance; sickness followed, and by spring only fifty-three of the original 102 settlers survived.

The survivors persevered and made solid gains. In March of 1621, their leaders met with Massasoit, sachem of the local Wampanoag tribe, and agreed to a treaty of mutual assistance which was to last forty years. Through the invaluable Squanto, now their interpreter, guide, and go-between, the Pilgrims learned to fish and hunt and established trading relations with neighboring Indians around the Bay. They built houses of clapboards with straw roofs. Again with Squanto's aid, they planted crops and by October were able to entertain Massasoit and ninety of his people at a three-day Thanksgiving feast. In November, the Fortune arrived bringing thirty-five new settlers but no additional supplies; she was sent back to England with a cargo of clapboards and beaver skins, the profits from which were intended to begin repayment of the initial capital advanced by the stockholders of the Plymouth Company. Despite

the capture of this ship by the French and continuing mismanagement on the part of their English agents, within two years the Pilgrims had built up a self-sufficient colony and gradually managed to pay off their debts with the profits from fur posts which they established on the Connecticut and Kennebec Rivers.

While the Pilgrims were fighting for survival in these early years, independent adventurers were establishing isolated posts along the Massachusetts coast: William Blackstone on Shawmut Peninsula (Boston); Samuel Maverick at Mystick; Thomas Walford at Charlestown; Thomas Gray, Walter Knight, John Balch, Roger Conant, and John Lyford at Nantasket; David Thompson on the Boston harbor island which still bears his name. The settlement at Wessagusset (Weymouth) brought Myles Standish and an "army" of eight men down on it for selling alcohol and guns to the Indians, and Thomas Morton of Merrymount (Quincy) was tried at Plymouth and deported to England because his Maypole and his liberal approach to the Indians were distasteful, if not actually dangerous, to the Pilgrim settlement.

In 1623, Rev. John White's Dorchester Company sent out fourteen men to set up a fish-curing station at Gloucester on Cape Ann. Despite the arrival of thirty-two additional settlers the following year, the station was unprofitable. The Dorchester Company went bankrupt in 1626, and the colony was abandoned. However, Roger Conant, who had moved up from Nantasket, and a few of the more persistent Gloucester families decided to remain in Massachusetts. Recognizing that Cape Ann offered too little agricultural land to support a settlement, this group of about a dozen families moved to Naumkeag, soon renamed Salem, where they managed to re-establish themselves.

Though the Gloucester project in itself was a failure, it proved to be the forerunner of the most important colonizing effort yet made in North America. England was experiencing a period of continued change and unrest, political and economic as well as religious. The Puritans, those religious dissenters who hoped to reform the established church from within, were drawn to a large extent from the ranks of country gentlemen and middle class businessmen, all of whom were feeling the stress of the times. Certain Puritans became interested in reviving the defunct Cape Ann project and backed Rev. John White with money for supplies to reinforce Conant's settlement at Naumkeag. Cattle arrived in 1627, clothes, grain, food and salt in the summer of 1628, and in September of the same year the Abigail brought a new group of colonists under the leadership of John Endecott, who took command of the settlement from Conant and quickly prepared for the arrival of additional people.

Meanwhile, the number of Puritans in England interested in the Massachusetts venture continued to grow, and in 1629 a strong group, including John Winthrop, obtained a charter from Charles I as "The Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England." The same year six ships arrived at Salem, bringing 300 new settlers, sixty head of cattle and horses, and other supplies. In 1630 the new Governor Winthrop, in

the Arbella, led a fleet of eleven ships with 500 new colonists to Salem. The huge influx of people overflowed into the settlement at Charlestown. William Blackstone then invited them to settle in Boston, and from there small groups moved out to establish Roxbury, Dorchester, and other new towns. Blackstone soon regretted his lost solitude and, after selling his land (now Boston Common) to the Puritans, moved west to the valley that still bears his name.

The intention of the English Crown in granting the charter for the Massachusetts Bay Co. had evidently been to create merely another commercial company with the usual stockholders and officers; however, the charter failed to stipulate that the company's business meetings must be held in England. Seizing on this opportunity, the patentees transferred the entire management of the Bay Colony and the charter itself to Massachusetts. The Puritan leaders interpreted their commercial charter as, in effect, a political constitution for a new government, with only indirect dependence on the imperial one at home; they began immediately to create a theocratic social order in which individual freedom was subordinated to God's will as interpreted by His clergy. Freemen of the colony, adult males who owned property and were members in good standing of the Puritan church, met four times a year in a General Court and annually elected assistants (councillors), who in turn elected the Governor. However, Governor Winthrop and the Puritan clergy soon vested nearly all governmental powers in themselves, and, in 1634, the dissatisfied colonists demanded to see the charter, details of which were unknown to most of them. The provision in the charter that only freemen could levy taxes supplied the leverage to restore some governing powers to the colonists themselves. The May, 1634 meeting of the General Court provided that outlying towns could send official representatives to future Court sessions and that freemen acting in the General Court could elect the Governor, make the colony's laws, and levy taxes. Thus, the General Court became the legislative branch of Massachusetts government, as it still is. Ten years later, in the case of Widow Sherman's Pig (a typical small-town dispute over a stray sow), the General Court divided into two houses; the deputies eventually became the present House of Representatives and the assistants the Senate. The lack of a written code of laws caused concern among the settlers, and in 1641 the colony adopted the "Body of Liberties," drawn up by Rev. Nathaniel Ward of Ipswich, which included many of the guarantees now found in the Bill of Rights of the Federal Constitution.

A strong leadership, substantial financial support in England, and industrious settlers insured the initial success of the Bay Colony. The repressive religious and economic policies of Charles I in the next few years spurred the "Great Migration," and by 1634 the population of the new colony had risen above 10,000. At the core of each town there was undoubtedly a group subscribing to the strong religious protest of the Puritan movement, but by no means all of the new arrivals were firm supporters of Puritan doctrine. Large numbers of them were simply middle-class Englishmen, who were hard pressed by the current economic situation at home and who saw in the Bay Colony the opportunity for free land and a profitable new livelihood. The result was a series of boom towns and an expanding economy.

The first Massachusetts settlements were located around the many harbors which offered protection for the small boats which were the principal means of transportation. Colonists soon began to move inland under the authority of land grants given by the General Court to groups led by their pastors. This shift in population generally followed the rivers, and new towns spread rapidly over the coastal lowlands. Settlers then ran into the hill country, broken by many small brooks and ponds, which, because of its steepness and rocky soil, offered few suitable sites for farms. Faced with these geographical circumstances, settlements leapt over 100 miles to the fertile valley of the Connecticut River. In 1636, Rev. Thomas Hooker led colonists from Cambridge to the area of the present state of Connecticut. From there, settlers moved north up the valley and by 1675 had reached Deerfield and Northfield. The upland between Worcester and Springfield remained Indian land. The Berkshire Hills were also an obstacle to westward movement, and the hill country itself had little attraction for settlers, since, like that to the east, it was generally poor farmland. Another seventy-five years passed before settlers crossed that barrier into the narrow valleys of the Hoosac and Housatonic Rivers. The most enduring feature of this community pattern established in each of the new colonial settlements was the town meeting, in which every taxpayer had an equal vote.

One of the principal concerns of the leaders of the Bay Colony and of each of its new towns was education. Puritanism presupposed an intelligent clergy capable of interpreting Scripture as well as a literate congregation who could understand the Bible and the meaning of the lengthy sermons to which they listened every Sunday. Therefore, schools for the education of both clergy and congregation were a necessity. In 1635, a grammar school, later known as the Boston Public Latin School, was opened; and, in 1636, the General Court appropriated funds for the establishment of the College at Newtowne (Cambridge). When a young clergyman, John Harvard, bequeathed his personal library and part of his estate to the college, it was renamed in his honor. Popular education was mandated in 1642 when the Assembly required parents to teach their children reading, writing, and a trade. Then, in 1647, the legislature enacted a law which established a free public school system and compulsory attendance.

The growth of the new colony's economy matched that of its population. For a generation, fur trading was an important activity, especially along the Connecticut River. Timber and various by-products of the forest were also profitable items. Fisheries were established along the coast, and fish became both a colonial staple and an important trade commodity. The launching of the Blessing of the Bay into the Mystic River in 1631 initiated an industry which has continued through periodic peaks and troughs to the launching of an atomic cruiser. However, for the first several years, the main business of the Massachusetts Bay Colony was raising cattle, corn, and other foodstuffs for sale to new settlers, who arrived from England supplied with money and limited goods.

This profitable system dissolved in 1637, because of the events which were to result in the English Civil War. The Puritans now hoped to gain

control at home, as they soon did, and the "Great Migration" came to an end. The colonists were forced to look for another means of livelihood, which they soon discovered in trade with the West Indies. In these Caribbean Islands, where planters concentrated on raising tobacco and sugar with slave labor, the colonists found a ready market for their products -- dried fish, salt beef and pork, ground vegetables, poultry, even horses -- and for ships to transport them. By selling these in the West Indies, New Englanders obtained a credit balance with which they could buy goods in England. Around 1670, colonists began distilling West Indies molasses into rum, which proved to be another profitable commodity. This West Indies trade was to remain a major element in the New England economy until the American Revolution.

Expansion of the Puritans into the Connecticut Valley brought on a short war with the Pequots in 1637, but despite that outbreak, the generally friendly relations begun by the Pilgrims at Plymouth with the Indians under Massasoit continued until that sachem's death in 1662. Religious enthusiasm for the conversion of the natives led Rev. John Eliot to translate the Bible into their Algonkian language. In 1651, Eliot founded a town of "Praying Indians" at Natick, the first of thirty such settlements; by 1674 he had made 1100 converts in Plymouth Colony. However, the continuing pressure of the expanding white population made it increasingly difficult for the Indians to survive. King Philip's War and accompanying retaliation by Eliot's fellow colonists were soon to undo his work.

King Philip, who became sachem of the Wampanoag Tribe on the death of his father Massasoit, believed that the white man intended to exterminate the Indian. Under his leadership, relations between natives and settlers became strained, and when three of Philip's tribesmen were hanged in punishment for the murder of one Sassamon, a converted Indian, war erupted with an attack on Swansea in Plymouth Colony. The coalition of Indian tribes formed by Philip terrorized frontier communities -- Deerfield, Hadley, and Springfield in the Connecticut Valley; Worcester and Marlborough in the central part of the Bay Colony -- and ranged far enough to the east to attack Sudbury and Scituate. Some settlements were wiped out completely by the Indians; in others, where resistance was stronger, only outlying farmsteads were lost; in still others, the colonists retreated to the safety of larger towns near the coast.

Plymouth and the Bay Colony mobilized every able-bodied male to meet the crisis. In August 1676, Philip fell in ambush, and when his head was placed on public display in the town of Plymouth, the Indian threat to Massachusetts was at an end. The Wampanoags and their allies were nearly destroyed; survivors fled to Canada or west of the Hudson. However, the colonists paid a high price for their victory. One out of every ten colonists of military age was killed or captured; twenty years passed before all the destroyed towns were resettled, forty before the colonial frontier advanced again.

During the years when the Bay Colony was rapidly growing stronger, England was experiencing continual civil conflict -- King versus Parliament, Roundhead versus Cavalier, Cromwell and the Commonwealth. Completely occupied with problems at home, the imperial government had little time for colonial affairs. As a result, the Puritan theocracy in Massachusetts, often called the "Bible Commonwealth," was left to act almost as an independent state. Massachusetts ran her own foreign affairs with the French settlements in Acadia and Quebec and dealt with other colonies as an autonomous agent. In 1639-1640, emissaries of the Bay Colony made preposterous claims in a boundary dispute with Plymouth and forced a decision highly unfavorable to the latter colony's towns. In 1652, by an even more arbitrary boundary settlement with New Hampshire, Massachusetts annexed the new county of Yorkshire, extending the Bay Colony's territory almost to Casco Bay. The same year, Massachusetts established her own mint and converted Spanish dollars into pine-tree shillings to alleviate the shortage of coins. As the colonial economy soared, Puritan merchants ignored the English Navigation Acts (1651-1663) more often than they observed them.

The arrogance of the theocratic government reached its height in the Bay Colony's attitude toward other religious doctrines than its own. The Puritan leaders had come to New England to establish a community in which they would be free to worship as they themselves chose but had no intention of providing a refuge for those who might choose to worship differently. The first of the more famous examples of Puritan intolerance involved Roger Williams of Salem, who was banished from Massachusetts Bay in 1636 and settled in Rhode Island. At almost the same time there arose the Antinomian controversy in which Anne Hutchinson and Henry Vane the younger were the protagonists and which ended in Mrs. Hutchinson's banishment and Vane's return to England. Strict laws were passed against the Baptists in 1644, and several of them were subjected to severe punishment. The Quakers were also persecuted, particularly in the period from 1656 to 1662; four, including Mary Dyer, were hanged, and many others were publicly whipped, imprisoned, branded, or banished. Finally, owing partly to a revulsion of public feeling and largely to intervention by the English Crown following the Stuart Restoration in 1660, the worst forms of persecution were brought to an end.

Charles II subscribed to the mercantile theory of the age that colonies were created solely for the benefit of their mother country; when he felt that his throne was secure, he began to tighten his control over Massachusetts Bay. Colonial leaders adopted a policy of evasion and delay in meeting charges leveled against them and in complying with imperial orders. When Edmund Randolph was sent over as the agent of the Crown in 1676, he was given a cool reception. As a result, the English government successfully instituted court proceedings which ended in the revocation of the Massachusetts Bay Colony's charter in 1684.

Determined now to unify the colonies and strengthen their ties with England, the British Colonial Office established the Dominion of New England in 1686. Under James II, who had succeeded to the throne, all

the territory from New Jersey to Nova Scotia - - including New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, and New Hampshire - - was combined into a single governmental unit under Royal Governor Sir Edmund Andros, whose strict administration quickly provoked the colonists' anger. Fortunately for the Bay Colony, the Glorious Revolution overthrew James and placed William and Mary on the throne. When news of the Revolution reached Boston, Governor Andros was seized and held at Castle William in the harbor until he could be transported back to England.

In 1691, Massachusetts was granted a new charter by William and Mary as a royal colony, the Province of Massachusetts Bay. At the same time, New Hampshire, which Massachusetts had annexed, was made a separate colony. As compensation, Massachusetts was given jurisdiction over Plymouth Colony and islands of Nantucket and Martha's Vineyard. The new charter brought the Puritan theocracy to an end, for it abolished church membership as a prerequisite for voting, and Massachusetts became a civil rather than a Bible commonwealth.

Province of Massachusetts Bay 1691-1780

23

The first royal governor of the new Province of Massachusetts Bay, Sir William Phipps, took office in a time of hysteria. Some children in the village of Danvers had accused a slave woman, Tituba, of putting a curse on them. She, in turn, incriminated others, who were found guilty of witchcraft and sentenced to death. Despite scattered protests at the manner in which testimony was obtained and verdicts rendered, the number of convictions grew, and twenty persons were actually executed. The hysteria continued until Governor Phipps returned from a trip on Province business to find that his own wife had been accused; he promptly disbanded the witchcraft courts and released the 150 people still in jail awaiting trial.

The wars that periodically swept over Europe now spread to America as well, and Massachusetts and the other colonies became pawns in the struggle between England and France for World Empire. During King William's War (1689-1697), Governor Phipps led a successful expedition that seized the French settlement in Acadia in 1690, but it was lost again the following year. French privateers took a heavy toll of the colony's shipping before the war reached its inconclusive end. The peace was broken again in 1703 when the Indians, urged on by the French, attacked settlements in the Massachusetts held territory of Maine. They terrorized towns in the western part of the colony, devastating Deerfield in 1704. However, colonial forces gradually gained the upper hand, and Queen Anne's War came to a successful conclusion in 1713.

Massachusetts recovered rapidly from these imperial wars and entered another period of significant economic growth. During this period of the 18th century there was little interference from the London government in accord with the Walpole policy of "Salutary Neglect." The colony's population and the number of new towns steadily increased. The fishing and shipbuilding industries prospered, and a mercantile class developed in many of the coastal towns. Massachusetts sent her products, viz., furs, dried fish, lumber, barrel staves, spars, shingles and rum, to the other American colonies, the West Indies, the Mediterranean, and England. In return, the colony imported manufactured goods, sugar and molasses, wine, naval stores, and specie. On occasion, Boston and Salem were also involved in the so-called Triangular Trade.

At mid century, Massachusetts again felt the impact of European wars. During King George's War (1744-1748), the colony mobilized all its forces and sent an expedition of 4,000 men under the command of Sir William Pepperell to attack the French garrison at Louisburg, which guarded the mouth of the St. Lawrence River. The Massachusetts forces carried the fort, much to England's surprise. The colonists were outraged when Louisburg was returned to the French by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748). Their anger cooled somewhat when the British government announced that the colony would be reimbursed for the cost of the expedition in specie, which was then badly needed to bolster the Massachusetts economy. The colony continued to do her part during the French and Indian War

(1754-1763); Massachusetts men were with General Wolfe when Quebec fell, and the colony contributed both men and supplies to General Amherst's successful campaign against Montreal. The Treaty of Paris in 1763 ended the French threat to the American colonies, and Massachusetts turned her attention to domestic problems and her changing relations with England.

With the conclusion of the French and Indian War, England initiated a new policy in reference to her American colonies. George III and his ministers decided that the colonies should help pay the cost of maintaining an army for their protection against the Indians. The necessary funds, argued the London government, could be obtained provided the mercantilistic system were properly enforced. Mercantilism was the economic policy which the English had followed since the middle of the 17th century. Beginning with the Navigation Act of 1651, Parliament had enacted a series of laws which affected the economic relationship between the mother country and the colonies. Some of the acts worked to the advantage of the colonists, especially those requiring the use of English or colonial ships. Indeed, the colonial shipbuilding industry received a major stimulus from this legislation. Other regulations had a deleterious effect upon the colonies; this was particularly the case with the acts which required that certain products be sent directly to England. Nevertheless, in general, the lack of enforcement had made the Navigation Acts more irksome than oppressive. Within the next few years, however, the situation was to change dramatically.

Earlier, in 1761, toward the close of The Great War For Empire, a judicial case occurred which adumbrated the new policy as well as the colonial reaction. The British officers stationed in Boston petitioned for general warrants, "Writs of Assistance," that would permit them to search for smuggled goods. Appearing before Judge Thomas Hutchinson, James Otis argued that the writs were unconstitutional. Although Otis lost this case, shortly thereafter he became a leader of the "patriot" cause.

In April of 1764 the British Parliament passed the American Revenue Act, commonly known as the Sugar Act. This legislation modified the Molasses Act of 1733; but unlike the 1733 law whose purpose was to regulate trade, the 1764 act had as its objective the production of revenue. The new act was also to be permanent as well as efficiently enforced. Opposition from colonial merchants was inevitable. James Otis articulated this opposition in his pamphlet Rights of the British Colonists Asserted and Proved. In this work he raised the issue of no taxation without representation as well as the denial of the colonists' rights as Englishmen.

On March 22, 1765, the Stamp Act became law. According to this legislation, revenue stamps were to be affixed to a variety of items: newspapers, pamphlets, mortgages, legal papers, bills of lading, skins, parchments, college diplomas, calendars, almanacs, advertisements, tavern licenses, playing cards, and dice. The law was to become effective on November 1, 1765. A storm of protest engulfed Massachusetts and the other colonies. One major argument against the Stamp Act was that Parliament had no right to tax the colonies directly; this was the function of the colonial assemblies. Violence occurred when the Sons of Liberty set fire to

Lieutenant-Governor Hutchinson's mansion and destroyed his library and valuable manuscripts. Both Samuel Adams and James Otis were leaders of the opposition. Otis was one of the delegates sent by Massachusetts to the Stamp Act Congress held in New York City in October of 1765. At about the same time, a colonial boycott of British goods was organized. As the result of these efforts, Parliament repealed the Stamp Act in March of 1766. Significantly, however, on the same day that George III signed the repeal of the Stamp Act, Parliament passed the Declaratory Act. By this legislation Parliament refused to recognize the colonial position in the argument over taxation.

The calm established by the Stamp Act repeal was relatively short-lived. In June of 1767 a series of laws known as the Townshend Acts was passed by the Parliament. The Duty or Revenue Act was designed to raise new custom duties in the American colonies. Thus duties were levied on glass, lead, painters' colors, paper, and tea. Another Townshend Act with a major impact in Massachusetts provided for the establishment of an American board of custom commissioners. This board was to be answerable to the Lords of the Treasury rather than to the English customs commissioners. Furthermore, the location of the five new commissioners was to be in Boston.

Samuel Adams was again the leader in stimulating resentment to the Townshend Acts. He drafted the Massachusetts Circular Letter which denounced the Acts as dangerous to popular government. The Massachusetts General Court was ordered by London to rescind the Circular Letter, but it refused by a vote of ninety-two to seventeen and was dissolved by the governor. England also retaliated by sending two additional regiments to Boston. Bostonians, however, refused to provide barracks for the British soldiers and forced the "Lobster Backs" to find shelter in relatively expensive quarters. The acrimonious relationship between the soldiers and the inhabitants of Boston eventually reached a climax with the "Boston Massacre" of March 5, 1770, in which five Bostonians were killed. As a result of the incident, the British garrison was moved to Castle William in Boston harbor. Outside of Boston, however, the "Boston Massacre" had little impact.

More significant in bringing about repeal of the Townshend duties was the renewal of the economic boycott. On August 1, 1768, Boston merchants approved the nonimportation agreement. Eventually they were joined by most of the colonies. As the result of this opposition and the subsequent protest of the English merchants and shippers to Parliament, the North ministry in April of 1770 obtained repeal of all of the Townshend duties except for the one on tea.

The next few years was a period of comparative calm. It was only through the efforts of Samuel Adams and his radical colleagues who organized committees of correspondence that revolutionary sentiment continued in existence. Then, in the spring of 1773 the English Parliament came to the assistance of the radicals by passing the Tea Act. This measure was not intended to be either revenue-producing or regulatory. Its objective was to prevent the bankruptcy of the British East India Company. Thus, under

the provisions of the Tea Act, the company could ship its tea directly to the colonies; and the company was authorized to sell the tea directly to colonial consumers through its own agents. This gave the company a monopoly for the sale of tea in the American colonies and lowered the duty until it could no longer be smuggled profitably. Shippers who had illegally imported tea in the past were driven out of business, as were the merchants who handled its shipping and sale. Boston merchants also feared that Parliament might create similar monopolies for other products in the future and consequently undermine their livelihoods. A series of meetings was held in the Boston area in order to discuss the problem. Then, under the leadership of Samuel Adams, John Hancock, and other radicals, the famous Boston Tea Party occurred on December 16, 1773. A group of one hundred and fifty men, in Indian disguise, boarded the three tea ships and proceeded to dump the cargoes of tea, valued at 15,000 pounds, into the harbor. Thousands of Bostonians on shore watched the incident with approval.

Opinion in colonial America about the Boston Tea Party varied from denunciation to unqualified endorsement. When the news reached England in February of 1774, the reaction was generally highly critical. Lord North and other political leaders demanded a policy of coercion. During the next few months, a series of acts was passed by the Parliament which were known in England as the Coercive Acts and in America as the "Intolerable" Acts. Several of the Coercive Acts were specifically directed against the Massachusetts Bay colony. According to the Boston Port Act, Boston harbor was to be closed until full restitution for the destroyed tea had been made to the East India Company. Another Coercive Act, the Massachusetts Government Act, provided for the reorganization of the government of the province. Henceforth, members of the Massachusetts Council, the upper house, were to be selected by the King instead of being elected by the Assembly; and they could be removed at the judgment of the Crown. Most of the judges and administrative officers were to be appointed and removed by the governor without the approval of the Council. Jurors were to be selected by the sheriffs, whereas previously they had been chosen by the freeholders. Town meetings could be held only under major restrictions. In general, all colonial power was to be concentrated in the hands of the royally appointed governor. A third coercive measure, the Administration of Justice Act, provided for the transfer of trials of governmental officials from Massachusetts to another colonial court or to England when it was judged necessary to ensure the impartial administration of justice. The Quartering Act, which applied to all of the colonies, authorized the quartering of royal troops not only in taverns and deserted properties but also in occupied buildings.

The "Intolerable" Acts placed the colonial radicals firmly in control. Unable to secure merchant cooperation in another boycott of English goods, they decided to attempt political action. It was Samuel Adams who introduced a series of resolutions into the Massachusetts Assembly, meeting behind locked doors in Salem in June of 1774. The Adams resolutions invited the other colonies to participate in deliberations about "the present state of the colonies" in an effort to recover their

"just rights and liberties." The suggested meeting place was Philadelphia. All of the colonies except Georgia named delegates to the Continental Congress which met on September 5, 1774. Massachusetts sent as representatives Samuel Adams, John Adams, James Bowdoin, Thomas Cushing, and Robert Treat Paine.

General Thomas Gage had been sent to Boston in the dual capacity of royal governor and commanding general of the British troops sent to enforce the Coercive Acts. In practice, however, his authority extended only as far as the Boston town line at Roxbury Neck. The General Court moved from Boston and set itself up as an extra-legal government. Calling itself the Provincial Congress, it met at Salem, Concord, and Cambridge; it carried on governmental functions for all of the colony except Boston. Nonetheless, the Massachusetts countryside was restless, not knowing what to expect but preparing for the worst by drilling militia and collecting military supplies. Colonists whose sympathies still rested with the mother country began to move within the limits of Gage's command for safety.

In September 1774, delegates from the towns of Suffolk County in Massachusetts met in Dedham and then in Milton. Led by Dr. Joseph Warren, they resolved to cut off all relations with England, to refuse to obey the Coercive Acts, and to hold weekly militia musters. These "Suffolk Resolves" were carried to the Continental Congress by Paul Revere. The Congress, dominated by radical delegates, endorsed the Resolves and enforced a general boycott of English goods.

Clashes between colonials and Gage's troops were narrowly averted on several occasions during the fall and winter of 1774-1775 and only served to speed the process by which the colonials were arming themselves and forming companies of minutemen, ready to move into action against the British at a moment's notice. Their opportunity came on April 19, 1775.

On the night of April 18th, General Gage sent out a force of some 700 men under the command of Colonel Francis Smith with orders to secure the military supplies which the colonists had assembled at Concord. The colonists were prepared for such a move and dispatched Paul Revere and William Dawes to alert rebel leaders Samuel Adams and John Hancock, then staying at Lexington, and the militia at Concord. At Lexington, Revere and Dawes were joined by Dr. Samuel Prescott. The three were still several miles from Concord when they ran into a group of British officers. Only Prescott escaped, and it was he who carried the alarm to Concord.

Anticipating trouble from local militia, Colonel Smith had ordered Major John Pitcairn forward with six companies of light infantry to secure the two bridges just beyond Concord. At the green in Lexington, this advance party was confronted by Captain John Parker and his single company of minutemen. After demanding that the militia disperse, Pitcairn ordered his troops to move in among the Americans and disarm them. In the

confusion that resulted, a musket fired, followed by several scattered shots and then a resounding volley from the British. Before Pitcairn could regain control of his men, eight Americans had been killed and ten wounded - and a war had begun.

By the time the British reached Concord, the major part of the rebels' military stores had been concealed or carted away. Obviously outnumbered by Smith's forces, the two Concord minute companies had withdrawn across the Concord River beyond the North Bridge, where they were joined by companies from Acton, Billerica, Sudbury, and other neighboring towns. Col. James Barrett, exercising temporary command, ordered the militia toward the bridge, now guarded by three British light infantry companies. Again shots were exchanged, and the infantry fell back into town followed at a cautious distance by the Americans.

At noon Col. Smith's apprehensive troops turned back toward Boston, pursued by growing numbers of colonial militia. The running battle which followed covered a field almost sixteen miles long and rarely more than a few hundred yards wide. American marksmen, sheltered behind trees, rocks, and fences, kept up a withering fire on the close ranks of the marching British. Col. Smith's orderly withdrawal became a retreat before he reached Lexington and a near rout before his exhausted troops reached the safety of Charlestown at dusk.

As news of Lexington and Concord spread, militia from other colonies joined the Massachusetts units already surrounding Boston. The lines grew tighter, and soon Gage was effectively besieged. An army of 20,000 men, commanded by General Artemus Ward, blocked the access to the mainland across Boston Neck. On the night of June 16, earthworks were erected to block the access across Charlestown Neck. It was actually Breed's Hill that was fortified rather than Bunker Hill, and it was there that the famous battle was fought the following day. Though the poorly prepared American forces were defeated, they took a high toll in casualties - - 1054 British as compared with 441 American - - and for the first time proved that colonial forces could meet the supposedly invincible British army as equals.

After Bunker Hill, the siege of Boston became a matter of quiet waiting. On July 3, 1775, George Washington took the oath as commander-in-chief of the Continental Army at the Cambridge Common. When Col. Henry Knox sledged the heavy artillery captured by Ethan Allen at Ticonderoga over the Berkshire Hills and on to Boston, Washington was able to extend his siege lines. In addition to the key heights in Roxbury and Somerville, he now fortified Dorchester Heights in South Boston. Finally, General Howe, who had taken command of the British forces, recognized the inevitable. On March 17, 1776, Howe's army and over a thousand Loyalist sympathizers evacuated Boston and sailed for Nova Scotia.

Though the main action of the war now shifted to the other colonies, Massachusetts men continued to contribute to the patriot cause. Knox

became one of Washington's most dependable generals. Led by John Glover, men from Marblehead and surrounding towns formed an amphibious force that served valiantly at Long Island and manned the boats for Washington's crossing of the Delaware. Massachusetts formed her own navy to harass the British fleet at Boston and commissioned many privateers. When the Continental Congress took over direction of the war effort, it commissioned the first vessel in the United States Navy; manned by Marbleheaders, the Hannah sailed out of Beverly and captured a British prize before she cleared Cape Ann. Massachusetts coastal towns were still vulnerable to the British Navy. Both New Bedford and Falmouth put up strong resistance, but parts of each town were destroyed by British landing parties. When the Continental Congress voted its approval of the Declaration of Independence, John Hancock signed his name prominently so that King George could read it without his glasses; the other Massachusetts signers were John Adams, Samuel Adams, Robert Treat Paine, and Elbridge Gerry.

With the separation of the American colonies from England, Massachusetts was faced with the problem of erecting a new governmental structure. The last General Court held under the provincial charter had convened in 1774; until the spring of 1775 Massachusetts was governed by Provincial Congresses. In May of 1775 a House of Representatives was elected and, with the Council, became the legal governing body. Objections to the structure arose, particularly in Berkshire County, where the independent farmers refused to allow the courts to sit until they had been given a government in which they had a greater voice. To meet this demand, the General Court drafted a constitution in 1778 and submitted it to town meetings for ratification. It was not ratified, mainly because of the Essex Result by Theophilus Parsons which argued that the draft contained few provisions for separation of powers and no bill of rights to protect the people against arbitrary government. In September 1778, a popularly elected constitutional convention met in Cambridge and after due consideration accepted a frame of government written almost entirely by John Adams. This second draft constitution was sent to town meetings for paragraph-by-paragraph ratification and in October 1780 became the supreme law of Massachusetts. Though many amendments have been made, the basic document remains the fundamental law of Massachusetts and the oldest constitution in America.

Commonwealth of Massachusetts

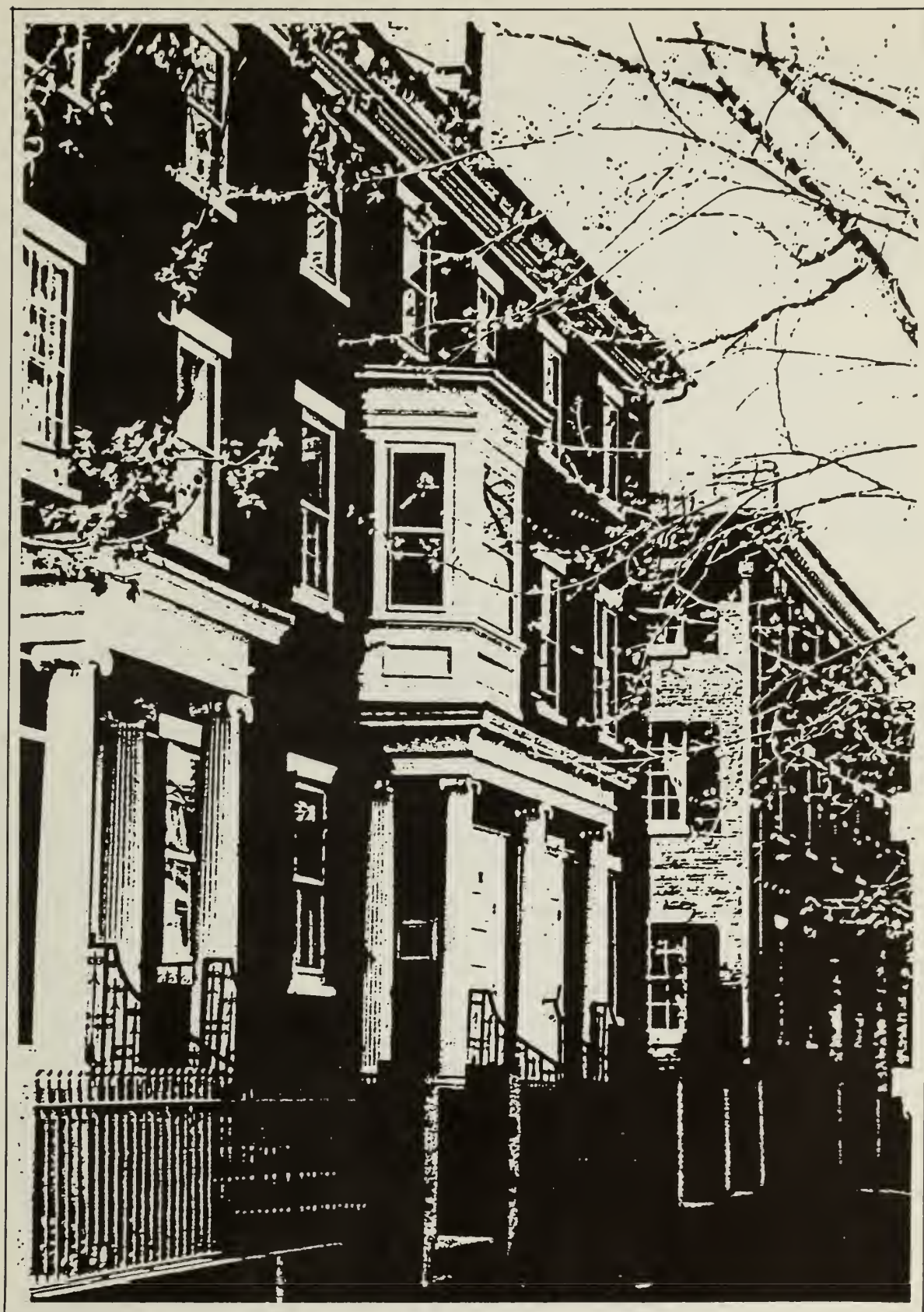
1780-1860

In Massachusetts, as in the other new states, the Revolutionary period was one of social and economic as well as political upheaval. Many of the state's commercial and governmental leaders had been Loyalists, who followed the retreating British armies to Canada and England. They were replaced by a new aristocracy which drew its wealth, as in the colonial period, primarily from the sea. (In 1784, the General Court voted that a wooden replica of a codfish - - "the Sacred Cod" - - should be hung in the chamber of the House of Representatives, signifying its importance to Massachusetts' economy.) As the financial resources of the Commonwealth became concentrated along the coast, dissatisfied farmers in the interior were left to manage as best they could.

Dissatisfaction was fanned to open rebellion by the depression which swept the newly created United States after the Revolutionary War. Farmers could not get fair prices for their crops; as a result, they could not pay their mortgages, and many stood to lose their land. In Worcester County and the Berkshire Hills, hard-pressed farmers petitioned unsuccessfully for legislative relief in the form of paper money and stay laws which would prevent foreclosure of mortgages. Led by Captain Daniel Shays, a Pelham farmer and Revolutionary War veteran, they besieged the courthouse at Worcester in August 1786 and refused to allow court action to collect debts. In January 1787, Shays and his followers attempted to seize the United States arsenal at Springfield. They were routed by General Benjamin Lincoln and a company of militia hastily formed by Governor Bowdoin and financed by Boston merchants. Lincoln and his militia followed the rebels to Petersham where they were finally dispersed; Shays and fifteen others were captured and sentenced to death but were subsequently pardoned.

Shays' Rebellion and similar shows of popular discontent convinced the propertied classes in Massachusetts of the need for a national constitution to replace the Articles of Confederation, which had proved almost useless in fostering trade, stabilizing finance, and protecting the interests of property. Nathaniel Gorham, Elbridge Gerry, Caleb Strong, and Rufus King represented Massachusetts at the Constitutional Convention of 1787. Massachusetts called a special convention in Boston in 1788 and by a bare majority became the sixth state to ratify the Federal Constitution. In taking this step, Massachusetts submitted a series of proposed amendments to the Constitution; the other states followed the same practice, and from these suggestions came the first ten amendments to the Constitution, the Bill of Rights.

With the inauguration of the new federal government under President Washington, Massachusetts entered another period of peace and economic prosperity. While her old trade routes within the British Empire were closed to her, new ones were soon discovered, particularly the immensely profitable trade with China, which was to continue unchecked until steamships replaced American sailing vessels. Boston ships went around Cape Horn to Oregon - - the first, the Columbia, discovered the river



Chestnut Street Historic District, Salem

which bears its name -- then to Hawaii, China, and home by way of South Africa. Salem captains often preferred to go by way of the Cape of Good Hope to the East Indies. Ships of Yankee merchants began to appear in every corner of the world, seeking cargoes and fortunes for their owners and for the Commonwealth. After 1793, when England and France were caught up in the first of the series of wars that followed the French Revolution, Massachusetts took over a large share of the carrying trade formerly monopolized by those countries. The Federal mansions of Salem and Newburyport are graceful evidence of Massachusetts' growing wealth in this period.

Prosperity shaped politics in the Commonwealth, and by the time John Adams succeeded Washington as president, Massachusetts was strong in her support of the principles of the Federalist Party. Many in the Commonwealth even approved the Alien and Sedition Acts by which the Federalists attempted to solidify their national power during the French Naval War of 1798. Jefferson's election in 1800 was considered a major calamity in Massachusetts; conservative merchants and shipowners prepared for disaster. Instead, the Commonwealth's economy continued to expand, and by 1804 Massachusetts was ready to support Jefferson's re-election.

Jefferson's popularity soon waned, for the tangled foreign policy of his second administration bore harder on Massachusetts than on any other state. War between England and France created a demand for American products and shipping, but it also made American merchantmen the prey of both those countries' navies. The Embargo Act, intended to end English and French interference with American shipping, drove the Commonwealth into a severe depression. Massachusetts people still resented interference with their trade as much as they had under the English Navigation Acts, and newspapers were soon spelling embargo backward as "O Grab Me." Protests turned to rebellion when Jefferson's successor, Madison, bowed to the demands of the expansionist West and carried the United States into the War of 1812 against England. Despite victories for some American vessels, among them the Constitution (launched at Boston in 1797), which earned the title "Old Ironsides," the British Navy was obviously superior and for three years kept the Commonwealth's trade at a standstill. During that period, Massachusetts expressed her resentment of "Mr. Madison's War" in every possible way. She refused to allow her militia to be used outside the Commonwealth's borders, gave only minimal financial support to the national war effort, and held celebrations of English victories over Napoleon. Under the leadership of the Essex Junto, a group of strongly pro-British Federalists in Essex County, Massachusetts was instrumental in calling the Hartford Convention of 1814, at which delegates from the New England states called for secession from the Union and nullification of the Federal Constitution. However, before the Federalists could press their campaign for secession, the war had ended.

Cut off from her previous sources of manufactured goods in Europe by the Embargo and the War of 1812, America was forced to develop her own industries. Several factors combined to give Massachusetts the potential

for a principal role in that development. Capital generated in the prosperous days before the Embargo was still available for investment. The rivers and streams that coursed the Commonwealth's valleys provided a ready source of water-power. Labor was available as in no other section of the country, for thousands of Massachusetts farmers and their families were ready to trade their unequal struggle with a stubborn soil for industrial employment. Thus, when Francis Cabot Lowell perfected the power loom and set up the first true textile factory in America at Waltham in 1814, Massachusetts was able to take full advantage of his invention and moved rapidly to a position of leadership in this new industry.

Textile mills were established throughout the Commonwealth, but major production was concentrated in two centers. The factories in the New Bedford-Fall River area followed the English system, introduced by Samuel Slater in Rhode Island, which involved the exploitation of young children. In contrast, the owners of factories along the Merrimack River set out to create model communities, with a paternalistic attitude toward the farm girls who were the principal part of their labor force. Unfortunately, exploitation became more common until, in 1842, a law was passed prohibiting children under twelve years of age from working more than ten hours a day in the factories. In 1841, the courts recognized the right of factory employees to form unions to improve their working conditions, but unions did not become effective until many years later. By the time of the Civil War, Irish immigrants constituted the major source of labor for the textile mills, and Massachusetts was fast assuming the appearance of a modern industrial state.

The growth of manufacturing in Massachusetts was accompanied by improvements in transportation within the Commonwealth. In the early 1800's, toll roads linked Boston with the principal cities of New England, but stage-coaches were not adequate to handle the increasing volume of freight generated by Massachusetts industries. A number of surveys for proposed canals were made, but only one major canal was built. This was the Middlesex, completed in 1805, which extended from the Merrimack River, near Lowell, to the Charles River in Boston. Development of the railroads curtailed canal construction. The first steam railroad in America, begun in 1826, was a three-mile line which hauled Quincy granite from the quarries to the wharves along the Neponset River for further transportation by water. By 1835, three railroads connected Boston with Lowell, Worcester, and Providence, Rhode Island. Though their commercial advantages were obvious, the first railroads in Massachusetts were criticized severely. During the building of the Western Railroad from Worcester to Springfield in 1837, so much adverse criticism was directed against the project that the owners of the line sent a letter to all churches in the Commonwealth asking that sermons be preached on the beneficial moral effects of railroads.

The rise of manufacturing coincided with a decline in agriculture. This was partly due to the greater opportunity for profit in the new industries; a more important influence, however, was the growth of western agriculture,

with which Massachusetts farmers could not successfully compete. Western farm products reached eastern markets as soon as the Ohio Valley frontier was established, but it was only after 1825, when the opening of the Erie Canal allowed the inexpensive and rapid delivery of western products to the east, that the full impact of this new competition was felt. Grain from the Ohio Valley could now undersell grain from the Berkshires in the Boston markets. Massachusetts farmers were faced with the alternatives of going to the cities to become workers in the factories or of migrating westward themselves. Many chose the latter course, moving in a steady stream across New York to settle the northern tier of the Old Northwest states. Rural decay in Massachusetts began. Cultivated fields reverted to woodland, and today Massachusetts has more forest than she had 150 years ago.

Despite her increasingly industrial economy, Massachusetts did not abandon the sea. In the 1840's and 50's, Donald McKay built clipper ships at his East Boston yards. Driven by towering clouds of canvas, they set sailing records that have never been beaten. Far less glamorous but still important were the whalers out of Nantucket and New Bedford that roamed the oceans in search of whale oil.

This was also the period in which leaders in many fields called for wide-ranging reforms, beginning with the Commonwealth's governmental and religious system. Politically this reform spirit found expression in 1820 in the release of Maine, which had been part of Massachusetts since 1691, and in the constitutional convention of the same year. This convention met the demands of the people for a greater voice in government by drafting ten amendments to the State Constitution, including provisions for the incorporation of cities, the abolition of property qualifications for voting, and the removal of religious tests for office-holders. The reform spirit expressed itself in religion in 1833, when another constitutional amendment was adopted completely separating church and state and placing Congregationalism, previously favored by governmental support, on the same level as other denominations. With this amendment, the last vestiges of aristocratic Puritanism were removed from the statute books.

Unitarianism, begun in America at King's Chapel, Boston, just after the Revolution, was sweeping through the Commonwealth under the guidance of William Ellery Channing; its liberal doctrines threatened to bury the Congregational Church under an avalanche of popular disapproval. Only through the efforts of Rev. Horace Bushnell, who worked to reconcile the old Calvinistic theology with the humanitarianism of this new era was the influence of the Congregational Church maintained.

In Concord, Emerson, Thoreau and their disciples began to express resentment of the dehumanizing effects of machines and preached in verse and prose the Transcendental doctrines of individualism and the nobility of man. Total abstinence societies, first formed in Boston in 1826, spread through Massachusetts and the nation, beginning the organized movement that culminated in the Eighteenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution. Dorothea L. Dix began her investigations into prisons

and the care of the insane that resulted in the establishment of the first state hospital for the care of the mentally ill at Worcester in 1833. William Gridley Howe became interested in the training of the blind and founded the Perkins Institute (now at Watertown) in 1832. Horace Mann, Massachusetts' first commissioner of public education (1837-1848), campaigned successfully for improvement of schools, for universal education, and for better training of teachers through normal schools; his work gave the Commonwealth a leading position in public education in the United States.

The reform spirit also led to the growth of various utopian communities in Massachusetts. Members of the United Society of Believers in the Second Appearance of Christ, known as Shakers, had begun to gather in communities at Hancock and Harvard in the 1780's but reached the height of their influence in the second quarter of the nineteenth century. Founded by Ann Lee in England, this sect sought to create a perfect society by withdrawing from "the world" and establishing a communal organization which would be both church and community. Following the principles of Fourier, as introduced into the United States by Arthur Brisbane, the Rev. George Ripley established Brook Farm, an institute of agriculture and education, at West Roxbury in 1841. Ripley was for a time editor of The Dial, a critical literary monthly, and many of that magazine's contributors were either members of the short-lived Brook Farm experiment, shareholders in it, or interested visitors. They included Ralph Waldo Emerson, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Charles A. Dana, Theodore Parker, Margaret Fuller, and Orestes A. Bronson. In 1843-1844, Bronson Alcott attempted to found a Transcendental community at Fruitlands, near Harvard, but, like Brook Farm, his experiment did not succeed.

This same reform spirit was the principal motivation for the growing anti-slavery movement, centered in Boston and in New York State. It was in Boston in 1831 that William Lloyd Garrison established his newspaper The Liberator, which was committed to the immediate emancipation of all people held in bondage and was vitriolic in the abuse it directed against slaveholders. In 1832, the New England Anti-Slavery Society was formed in Boston; within a year it became the American Anti-Slavery Society and spread across the North, stirring sentiment in favor of uncompensated emancipation.

Garrison and his followers were initially opposed by milder men, led by William Ellery Channing, who favored legal and peaceful methods of freeing the slaves, and by most of the respectable, propertied elements of society, who feared that the anti-slavery agitation would cut off the flow of cotton from the South, on which the Massachusetts textile industry depended. However, the movement soon attracted such men as Wendell Phillips, John Greenleaf Whittier, and John Quincy Adams and grew to include a large number of outstanding Massachusetts citizens. The Commonwealth opposed the annexation of Texas and looked on the Mexican War as a slaveholders' conspiracy. Daniel Webster, then United States Senator from Massachusetts, was widely criticized for voting for the Compromise of 1850, and Charles Sumner, a militant abolitionist, was sent

to the Senate in 1852. After his "Crime Against Kansas" speech, Sumner was assaulted in the Senate and permanently crippled, but he continued to represent Massachusetts until 1874. Massachusetts abolitionists strongly opposed the Fugitive Slave Act, established "Underground Railroad" stations to aid escaped slaves in reaching freedom in Canada, and organized the New England Emigrant Aid Company, which tried vainly to win Kansas for the North by sending out as settlers people who would bar slavery from that territory.

During the 1840's and 50's, a steady stream of Irish immigrants poured into the Commonwealth until the population of many of the larger cities was predominantly Celtic. The public was alarmed by what it viewed as an alien invasion, and for a short time Massachusetts politics followed an intolerant trend. In the state elections of 1854 and 1855, the Commonwealth gave its vote almost solidly to the American or Know-Nothing Party, which was pledged to end immigration and to combat the growing influence of the Roman Catholic Church. By 1856, however, the newly formed Republican Party, with its anti-slavery principles, had gained wide support in the Commonwealth. The electoral votes of Massachusetts went to that party's presidential candidate, John C. Fremont. In 1860, the Republican candidate, Abraham Lincoln, again carried Massachusetts' electoral votes.

Commonwealth of Massachusetts 1860-1918

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When President Lincoln called the North to arms on April 15, 1861, three days after the fall of Fort Sumter, Massachusetts was the first state to respond. Governor John Andrew immediately mobilized the Massachusetts militia and dispatched the Sixth Massachusetts Infantry to guard the nation's capitol. While marching through Baltimore on April 19, sixty-eight years to the day after Lexington and Concord, the troops were attacked by a mob of southern sympathizers, and four militiamen were killed. In the Civil War, as in the Revolution, Massachusetts blood was the first to be shed. The Commonwealth was swept by a wave of patriotism in which factional differences were forgotten, and for Massachusetts citizens the Civil War became almost a holy crusade -- a war to end slavery and preserve the union.

For the next four years, the Commonwealth supported the war enthusiastically with money, supplies, and men. The shoe industry, aided by new inventions that changed it from a shop to a factory operation, expanded so much that it was said that half the Union Army marched in Massachusetts-made shoes. Small machine shops turned out the hardware necessary for an army in the field. Massachusetts contributed her share of Union commanders: among them were Hooker, Banks, Devens, Butler, Captain John Winslow of the U.S.S. Kearsarge, and Colonel Robert G. Shaw, who lost his life while leading the 54th Massachusetts, a black regiment, in an attack on Fort Wagner. By the end of the war, the Commonwealth had furnished more than 126,000 troops and nearly 20,000 sailors to the Union forces.

Booming war industries caused a tremendous expansion in the Massachusetts economy, which continued in the decades that followed. Boston's State Street became a financial center, and Massachusetts capital poured into local industries and westward to develop railroads and mines. The insurance industry, first established in 1836 and placed on a sound basis by Elizur Wright, laid the foundation for what was to become one of the Commonwealth's most important businesses in the next century. In contrast, the sea, on which the economy of Massachusetts had originally been built, was a factor of decreasing significance. Though imports continued to provide the raw materials for the Commonwealth's industries, exports declined with monotonous regularity, and only Boston remained an active commercial port. Fishing continued to thrive, but the clipper ships and whalers fell victims to progress -- the steam-propelled vessel in the one case and the development of the petroleum industry in the other -- and faded into legend.

Though manufacturing, like population, was drawn by the magnetic attraction of the West, Massachusetts maintained undisputed pre-eminence in many fields until the end of the century. In the 1880's, Fall River led the country in cotton manufacture, followed closely by Lawrence, Lowell, and New Bedford. Partly because of its climate, New Bedford became famous for its fine grade of cotton goods, while the northern New England mills developed the heavier fabrics. By 1890, Lawrence had become the third largest American producer of woollens, with Lowell a close fourth.

The shoe and boot industry had made great progress during the Civil War, and continued improvements in methods of power manufacture increased that industry's importance tremendously. In 1866, 220 factories were operating in Lynn and accounted for \$12 million of the Commonwealth's \$53 million production of shoes and boots for that year. By 1890, Lynn's factories alone had reached an annual production of \$26 million, and Brockton, Haverhill, Marlborough, and Worcester were all leading shoe centers. Despite the rivalry of New York and Middle West, Massachusetts resisted serious competition until 1900, by which date she was the source of nearly fifty per cent of the nation's output in this field.

Massachusetts achieved considerable importance in the manufacture of machinery, partly as a by-product of her industrial leadership. Power looms for the textile mills were locally produced. Shoe machinery was made at an immense plant in Beverly and at smaller ones in Boston and Waltham. Machinery for paper mills was constructed at Lowell, Lawrence, Worcester, and Pittsfield. As competition in these industries developed at points nearer the source of raw materials, the metal industry in Massachusetts underwent a change. Lighter grades of machines, tools, and mechanical equipment were found to be more profitable, and Massachusetts workers developed a fine skill in their production.

Industry and growing cities attracted a new flood of immigration which changed the social and ethnic composition of Massachusetts. Prior to the Civil War, the majority of immigrants were drawn from western Europe. By 1860, Boston alone had attracted more than 46,000 Irish, almost half as many as there were natives, and 3200 Germans. Beginning in the 1880's, however, the majority came from southern and eastern Europe: Italians, Poles, Greeks, Czechoslovakians, and Armenians. By 1914, over half the residents of the state were foreign-born or the children of foreign-born.

Most of these people sought employment in the overcrowded factory cities and towns. This abundant supply of labor often kept wages low and working conditions poor. The Commonwealth attempted to eliminate the worst abuses and enacted laws that limited the working hours of women and children (1874), provided for workmen's compensation, and established a minimum wage (1911). The workers themselves attempted to improve wages and factory conditions through the formation of trade unions, but with limited success. Organization of the shoe and boot industry proceeded quickly, largely because labor and not machinery was the important element. Organization of the textile industry was more difficult, for here the lower skills demanded of workers retarded unionization. The National Cotton Mule Spinners was formed in 1899, but it was not until the United Textile Workers organized in 1901 that any real progress was made. Problems between labor and management continued, and major strikes occurred, like that at Lawrence in 1912.

There was renewed interest in education after the Civil War; cities, now the dominant factor in American life, generated new problems which it was hoped education would solve. The movement for universal education initiated by Horace Mann in the earlier decades of the nineteenth century was completed, and the scope of the public school system expanded, largely

by the increase in the number of free public high schools. Equal advances were made at the upper levels of education. Wealth generated by industry provided endowments for the establishment of new institutions; some fifteen colleges and universities were founded in Massachusetts in this period (1860-1920). America achieved international recognition because of her great educators and administrators, four of whom were produced by Massachusetts: Charles William Eliot of Harvard, Granville Stanley Hall of Clark, Francis A. Walker of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Alice Freeman Palmer of Wellesley. The emancipation of women was furthered by opportunities for advanced study, and again the Commonwealth's contribution was distinguished. Wellesley College was founded in 1870, Smith College (Northampton) in 1871, Radcliffe (Cambridge) in 1879, and Simmons (Boston) in 1899. Specialized training in engineering and related subjects was provided by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Worcester Polytechnic Institute, both established in 1865. Responding to the demands of urban conditions, seventy-five Massachusetts cities and towns established industrial schools.

Advances in education coincided with a revival of scientific and philosophic speculation. Education and science were electrified by the new concepts of human development advocated by Darwin, Spencer, Tyndall, and Huxley. Massachusetts furnished one of the leading defenders of Darwin's theory of evolution in the person of Asa Gray, Fisher Professor of Botany at Harvard, and also its most eminent opponent, Louis Agassiz, who taught geology and zoology at Harvard. Agassiz stamped his personality on every scientific movement of the period and, like another Massachusetts man, Benjamin Franklin, was the great popularizer of his day. About the end of the century, Harvard became the center of activity for the four leading American philosophers of the time: William James, pioneer psychologist, Charles S. Pierce, scientific realist, Josiah Royce, and George Santayana.

Industrialism, science, and the growing problems of urban communities combined in their effect on organized religion. Christian Science, formulated by Mary Baker Eddy of Lynn, provided an alternative for many who were dissatisfied with conventional theological forms. Another vital influence was the development of social Christianity, which attempted to counteract the increasing absorption of Americans in practical, secular affairs by emphasizing the intimate relation between religion and daily life. All denominations recognized that there was a real connection between slums and morals and exhibited a growing concern with systematic relief of social ills. Reform became the current text preached by many Massachusetts clergymen, including Francis G. Peabody, Professor of Christian Morals at Harvard Divinity School, Phillip Brooks of Boston's Trinity Church, Minot Judson Savage of Springfield's Church of the Unity, Octavius Brooks Frothingham and William Joseph Potter, leading Unitarian radicals. These Massachusetts clergymen successfully emulated such national leaders as Washington Gladden, Lyman Abbott, Josiah Strong, and Cardinal Gibbons. The growing emphasis on sociology rather than cosmology was a reflection of the scientific temper, which soon became universal, enlisting the efforts of those outside Christianity, notably two Jewish leaders, Charles Fleischer and Solomon Schindler,

both rabbis at Temple Israel in Boston. In 1889, the Society of Christian Socialists was founded in Boston for the purpose of awakening "members of the Christian churches to the fact that the teachings of Jesus Christ lead directly to some specific form or forms of Socialism."

On April 6, 1917, the United States declared war on Germany and began mobilizing troops, including units of the National Guard (formerly the state militia). The Yankee (26th) Division of Massachusetts embarked for France after a short training period and landed in October, 1917, the first National Guard division to arrive. Bay State doughboys spent 210 days in the front lines and took part in major engagements at Chateau-Thierry and St. Mihiel. On the home front new military posts, such as Camp Devens, sprang up almost overnight. The Commonwealth's mills and factories turned out maximum production, and the shipyards at Quincy operated round the clock. Massachusetts herself was attacked by the enemy on July 26, 1918, when a German submarine surfaced off Orleans and, in sinking some barges, fired one shell that landed on the beach at Nauset. At the end of the war, it was Massachusetts' Senator Henry Cabot Lodge who led the fight against President Wilson's proposal that the United States join the League of Nations.

Commonwealth of Massachusetts 1918-1975

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Massachusetts Governor Calvin Coolidge gained national prominence in 1919 when he ordered the National Guard into Boston to end a strike by the police force. The following year, he was nominated as Warren G. Harding's running-mate on the Republican ticket. When Harding died in August 1923, Coolidge succeeded him and won election in his own right in 1924, becoming the first Massachusetts resident to attain the presidency since John Quincy Adams.

The year 1920 saw the opening of a criminal case that was to bring Massachusetts world-wide attention. Two Italian anarchists, Nicola Sacco and Bartolomeo Vanzetti, were arrested and charged with the murder of a paymaster and his guard in the course of a \$13,000 robbery at a shoe company in South Braintree. The following year, the two were tried before Judge Webster Thayer in Dedham, and despite good alibis, both were convicted. Sacco and Vanzetti waited in prison for seven years before the death sentence was pronounced on April 9, 1927. During that time, there were international protests against the trial as the feeling grew that the men had been convicted for their radical views rather than for any alleged crime. Governor Alvin T. Fuller appointed a special panel, consisting of Harvard President A. Lawrence Lowell, Judge Robert Grant, and M.I.T. President Samuel W. Stratton, to review the case. The panel's report criticized Judge Thayer's intemperate remarks during the trial but adjudged the verdict a correct one. Sentence was carried out on August 23, 1927. The question of the guilt or innocence of Sacco and Vanzetti is still being debated, and their case has become the subject of books, plays, poems, motion pictures, and even paintings.

The early post-war years were difficult times economically for Massachusetts. The great influx of immigrants, who had been the backbone of the Commonwealth's labor force, had ended. At the same time, competition from industries in other parts of the United States grew stronger as those regions acquired sufficient capital, electric power, and efficient management to build plants near the sources of raw materials and as the increasing mechanization of agriculture released farm labor for factory employment. Though Massachusetts had built railroads, she had never been really aggressive in developing their full potential for moving raw materials and finished goods cheaply and efficiently; the high costs of transportation became a differential which unavoidably priced Massachusetts products out of national markets when similar goods could be produced as well elsewhere.

The textile industry, which had started to move south at the turn of the century, now began a wholesale exodus, attracted by cheap labor, tax benefits, and sometimes cash inducements. Many one-industry towns lost their only means of support, and cities like Lowell, Lawrence, Fall River, and New Bedford have not yet entirely recovered from the loss of their key industry. The shoe towns, too, were seriously affected, as large sections of that industry shifted their operations to the Midwest. Massachusetts continued to manufacture machinery, electrical equipment, tools, and paper,

but agriculture proved the strongest element in her economy. In contrast to farmers in the western states who suffered depressed prices during the 1920's, Massachusetts farmers' diversified production of milk, poultry, tobacco, fruit, potatoes, cranberries, and market crops began to pay dividends.

The Commonwealth's already strained economy was hard hit by the depression of the 1930's, and individual communities were unable to cope with the situation. Massachusetts appropriated millions of dollars for her own relief programs. However, these proved inadequate until bolstered by the national relief and work programs initiated under President Roosevelt's New Deal, which built post offices, schools, sewers, and subways, improved parks, widened the Cape Cod Canal, and provided some much-needed books on the Commonwealth.

The outbreak of war in Europe in 1939 stimulated Massachusetts industry and led to the federalization of the National Guard and the expansion of military establishments, such as Camp Edwards, Westover Air Base, and the Boston Naval Shipyard. America's entry into World War II in 1941 was followed immediately by full mobilization of the armed forces and industry. Women joined the work force in increasing numbers as Massachusetts industries returned to full production. Perhaps the Commonwealth's greatest contribution to the war effort was made in the field of technical research; in secret laboratories around M.I.T. and Harvard, scientists worked to perfect radar, sonar, and other new military tools.

The years since World War II have brought serious problems, both economic and social, for Massachusetts. The Commonwealth's industrial base, though still the major factor in her economy, has declined, resulting in high unemployment in some areas. Miles of superhighways, while serving industry and making the labor force more mobile, have taken over the commuter business of the railroads and have retarded the development of rapid transit systems. The steady shift of population from urban to suburban areas has generated increasing demands for public services - - schools, utilities, fire and police protection - - in Massachusetts towns and has radically changed the character of some through uncontrolled residential and commercial development. Cities have frequently been left with deserted core areas, public schools half empty, and minimal tax bases.

Despite these negative developments, Massachusetts has made some solid gains in this same period. Her excellent educational and medical institutions continue to attract people from all over the United States and the world. New industries have added jet engines, plastics, electronics equipment of all types, rubber goods, wearing apparel, and synthetic fibers to the list of traditional Massachusetts products. With increased leisure time and the proliferation of the automobile, the travel and recreation industry has grown steadily more important, now ranking second only to manufacturing in its economic value to the Commonwealth. The group of research facilities and satellite industries concentrated on the periphery of Boston along Route 128, generally known as "Research Row," has developed into what is possibly Massachusetts' most valuable asset. Here scientists and engineers explore the possible application of new discoveries

in nuclear physics, colloid chemistry, computers, cyclotrons, spectrophometers, solar heating, radar, stroboscopic photography, differential analyzers, and hundreds of other highly technical fields. Numerous companies provide consultant services for business, industry, and all branches of government, solving problems ranging from new uses of nuclear energy to the determination of potential markets for new consumer goods and the elimination of "gremlins" from production lines.

In 1960, Massachusetts for the fourth time sent a native son to the White House when John Fitzgerald Kennedy was elected to the presidency. His words in a speech to a joint session of the General Court on January 9, 1961, appropriately sum up the role of Massachusetts in America's development as a nation:

... no man about to enter high office in this country can ever be unmindful of the contribution this state has made to our national greatness.

Its leaders have shaped our destiny long before the great republic was born. Its principles have guided our footsteps in times of crisis as well as in times of calm. Its democratic institutions -- including this historic body -- have served as beacon lights for other nations as well as our sister states . . .

The enduring qualities of Massachusetts -- the common threads woven by the Pilgrim and the Puritan, the fisherman and the farmer, the Yankee and the immigrant -- will not and could not be forgotten . . .

Cultural History of Massachusetts

Architecture

As the next volume of this plan will illustrate, Massachusetts has had the good fortune to retain numerous examples from every phase of her architectural history. A cold climate, Yankee economy, and the efforts of dedicated antiquarians and preservationists have combined to maintain original buildings dating back more than three centuries and even the make-shift shelters erected by the first settlers in the Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay Colonies--crude pole-walled "cabins", and "English wigwams" based on the Indian model--may be seen in reconstruction. With such a wealth of material at hand, the present summary can give at best only an outline of the architectural history of Massachusetts, discussing major figures and stylistic developments.

Massachusetts colonists rapidly replaced their cabins and wigwams with substantial wooden houses, similar to those they had known in England; frequently described as "medieval", these buildings were more accurately Elizabethan in origin. The typical seventeenth century house was two stories in height, the second occasionally overhanging, with two rooms downstairs, the hall (a living-cooking-dining room) and the more formal parlor, and two sleeping rooms, the hall chamber and parlor chamber, under a high gable roof. The small entry porch also held a steep staircase set against a massive central chimney. Such a building might begin as a half-house with a hall and hall chamber only, the entry porch and chimney at one end, but more often was constructed as a single unit.

A frequent feature was the rear lean-to, containing a pantry, a separate kitchen, and a third sleeping room; the space under the lean-to roof was used for storage or for one or two small lean-to chambers. As an addition, the lean-to rarely had the same roof-pitch as the main section of the house. Construction of the lean-to and the main section at the same time permitted use of continuous rafters in the rear roof slope and also allowed the kitchen fireplace to be built directly into the central chimney.

Existing examples of the seventeenth century house in Massachusetts include the Balch House (1636) in Beverly, the Fairbanks House (1636) in Dedham, the John Whipple House (pre-1650) in Ipswich, the Turner House (1668) and the John Ward House (1684) in Salem, and the Cooper-Frost-Austin House (c. 1690) in Cambridge. Both the Boardman House (1651) in Saugus and the Parson Capen House (1683) in Topsfield have an overhanging second story, ornamented on the latter with heavy carved pendants.

Though the meeting house was the official center of community life, the unofficial center was the tavern or "ordinary", where colonists gathered informally to discuss both town and church affairs and where meetings of town officials were frequently held. Initially these early inns were much

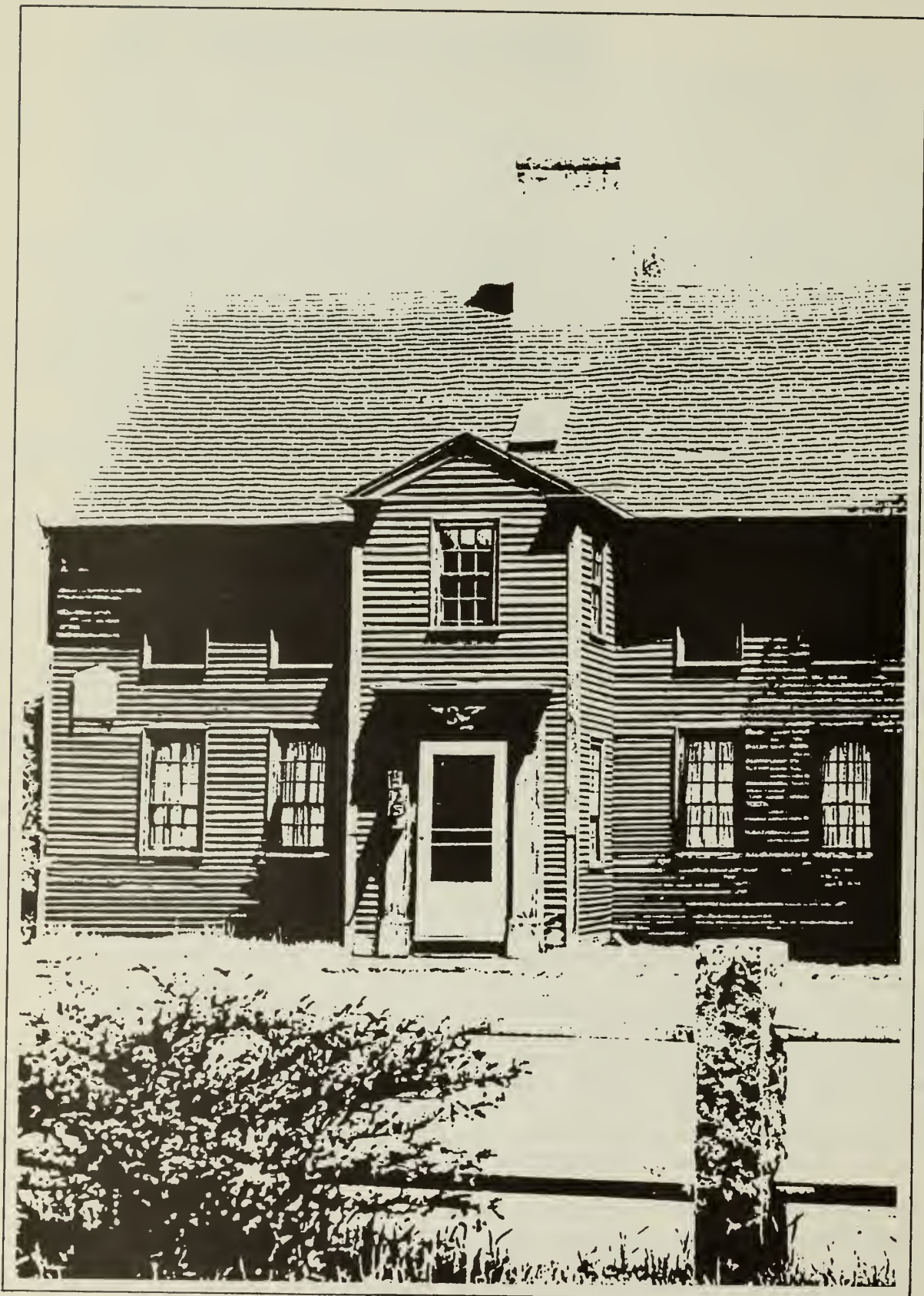
like private houses in size and plan, but as business grew lean-tos and ells were added to provide accommodations for travelers and sheds and stables were built nearby. Typical of these buildings are the Old Ordinary (c. 1650) at Hingham and the Munroe Tavern (1695) at Lexington; the Wayside Inn, Sudbury, though probably built in 1686, has been substantially altered.

Unlike the houses of the period, the seventeenth century meeting house was a new architectural form. To the strict Puritans, the typical Anglican church with its elaborate Gothic style, its emphasis on an altar at the end of a long aisle, and its pulpit at the middle of the long side of the building, came too close to "Popery"; even the use of the word "church" was avoided. Instead, the colonists constructed extremely plain, barn-like structures, which were the site of all community meetings, religious and political. The pulpit became the center of emphasis, still set in the middle of the long side of the building but with benches set facing it, lengthwise of the structure, and the main entrance opposite in a projecting porch. This arrangement remained the standard form for meeting houses until well into the eighteenth century. Only one example of the seventeenth century meeting house is now extant in Massachusetts, the Old Ship Church, built in 1681 at Hingham.

The end of the seventeenth century also saw the development of a vernacular architectural type that was to become almost universal for small houses of the eighteenth century. This was the "Cape Codder", a story-and-a-half cottage with large central chimney and exterior walls of clapboard, shingle or a combination of the two. Only a few authentic early examples of the Cape survive. Among them is the Jabez Wilder House (c. 1690) at South Hingham. The rainbow roof of the Wilder House, rising to the ridgepole in a broad convex curve, is a rarity; the straight-pitched gable roof is common to the house type.

During the eighteenth century, Massachusetts Bay, like the rest of the English colonies, turned to a more studied style of architecture, the Georgian. Originating in English architecture of the late Stuart period, the Georgian style in America was also influenced by the academic Palladianism of England's Georgian period. Details of the Georgian style were carried to the colonies in part by recent immigrants, both educated gentlemen who had a taste for it and craftsmen--carpenters, joiners, masons, and plasterers--who were familiar with the practical aspects of its construction. A much more important factor, however, was the growing availability of English architectural handbooks, authored by Batty Langley, William Halfpenny, Abraham Swan, Robert Morris and others. Within the colonies, the spread of the Georgian style was the result both of the use of handbooks and of the direct imitation of buildings for which they had been used.

Buildings were generally designed by their owners with the assistance of local carpenter-builders, who together outlined the major elements of the structure and its plan. Architectural handbooks were occasionally the source of a complete building plan or of the design of an entire facade, but handbooks, and imitation, were much more often used only for decorative



Kimball Tavern, Bradford

detail, particularly doorways, window treatments, mantelpieces, cabinetwork and cornices. Further, native craftsmen did not hesitate to deviate from their sources as necessity or imagination directed. As a result of this selective use and alteration of detail, fitted to the owner's taste and means, Georgian architecture in Massachusetts ranges from the full-blown style of the Vassall-Craigie-Longfellow House (1759) in Cambridge, with its pilastered and pedimented two-story central pavilion, to the Old Manse (1769) at Concord, with its relatively simple pilastered and pedimented doorway.

Construction materials were essentially the same in kind during the eighteenth century but of higher quality. Though brick is generally associated with the Georgian style, the wood-building tradition was already strong in Massachusetts and Georgian style houses, large as well as small, were often clapboarded. Greater change was apparent in the Georgian house plan, a double file of rooms, in some cases still around a massive central chimney, but more often on either side of a central hall. Individual rooms were larger in size and the old hall with its combined functions was frequently replaced by a library or sitting room and a dining room in the house itself and a kitchen in an ell. The parlor was retained for formal occasions and in major houses a ballroom or banquet hall might be added.

Full-blown Georgian designs were seen most in towns along or near the Massachusetts coast. Examples include the Isaac Royal House (begun 1723) at Medford; the Lindens (1754), originally built in Danvers and now moved to Washington, D.C.; the East Apthorp House (1760) in Cambridge; and the Jeremiah Lee House (1768) at Marblehead.

As a rule, the amount of decorative detail applied to a building decreased with its distance from the coast, and on the frontier the colonists built houses which, though broader in their proportions, were essentially an extension of the seventeenth century house type. In the Connecticut Valley in particular, otherwise simple houses were given elaborate Georgian doorways, flanked by pilasters and topped with a pediment or heavy broken scroll. A number of such buildings may be seen in Deerfield, among them the Jonathan Ashley House (c. 1733), the Sheldon-Hawkes House (1743), and the Dwight-Barnard House (1754). A similar example outside the Connecticut Valley is Jonathan Edward's Mission House (1739) in Stockbridge.

In the absence of professional architects in Massachusetts during the eighteenth century, designs for major public buildings were often prepared by talented amateurs. Massachusetts Hall (1720) at Harvard College was the work of college presidents John Leverett and Benjamin Wadsworth. Nearby Harvard Hall (1765) was designed by Royal Governor Sir Francis Bernard. Portrait painter John Smibert drew the plans for Boston's Faneuil Hall (1724), later modified and enlarged by Charles Bulfinch. William Price, a Boston print-seller, designed Christ Church or "Old North" (1723), placing on its simple front a high steeple reminiscent of Christopher Wren.

The work of Wren and his successor James Gibbs also influenced Peter Harrison of Newport, who, despite his lack of professional training, was perhaps the

most distinguished Colonial architect. Two buildings in Massachusetts are definitely the work of Harrison, King's Chapel (1752) in Boston and Christ Church (1761) in Cambridge. A third, Shirley Place (c. 1747), erected at Roxbury for Royal Governor William Shirley, is generally attributed to Harrison.

During both the seventeenth and eighteenth century, industrial architecture in Massachusetts was represented primarily by mills. Massachusetts town histories generally record a gristmill established within the first year or two of settlement and sawmills were common. Fresh-water streams were the usual source of power for mills, but there were a number along the coast in which the pressure of the incoming and ebbing tide on an undershot wheel operated the machinery. Probably the earliest tide-mill was a gristmill constructed at Hingham in 1643. The Slade Spice Mill (1721) in Revere is typical of these structures. There were also wind-driven mills in Massachusetts. The first of these was erected at Watertown and then removed to Copp's Hill, Boston, in 1632. Extant windmills in Massachusetts date from the eighteenth century; perhaps the most well-known is the Old Mill (1746) in Nantucket.

From the late 1780's to the 1820's, the dominant influence on architecture in Massachusetts was the Federal style, in which graceful curved shapes and fine detail were combined to achieve buildings with classical qualities. The major proponent of the Federal style and Massachusetts' first professional architect was Charles Bulfinch.

Following his graduation from Harvard, Bulfinch made an architectural "grand tour" of Europe. Returning in 1786 from London, where he had become familiar with the work of the brothers Adam, Bulfinch settled in Boston; he began designing houses for friends as a hobby and drew the plans for the new State House (1795) on Beacon Hill. When Bulfinch went bankrupt in 1796, his hobby became his living. For a number of years, Bulfinch worked in the New England area and, in 1817, at the invitation of President Monroe, he replaced Benjamin Latrobe as supervising architect for the Capitol in Washington.

Though Bulfinch was influenced by the Adam brothers, in plan and composition his work is clearly his own. His designs are characterized by slender proportions, delicate detail suited to execution in wood, light cornices and balustrades, attenuated columns, tall pilasters of slight projection, shallow surface arches, fanlights and sidelights with fine tracery. Significant Bulfinch buildings in Massachusetts include Faneuil Hall (1805, addition and revision), the Harrison Gray Otis House (1796), the Sears House (1800, second Harrison Gray Otis House), the Wadsworth House (1807, third Harrison Gray Otis House), the Bulfinch Building at Massachusetts General Hospital (1818)--all in Boston; University Hall (1813) at Harvard College, Cambridge; the Fifth Meeting House (1816), Lancaster; and Pearson Hall and Bulfinch Hall at Phillips Academy, Andover.

A contemporary of Bulfinch, also influenced by the Adam brothers, was Samuel McIntire, Salem's noted carpenter-builder-carver. McIntire houses--large, foursquare, three stories high--show a rather plain exterior; inside, how-

ever, the superbly executed details of elaborate mantelpieces and broad staircases with carved balusters and twisted newels testify to McIntire's talent as both designer and carver. Among McIntire's major buildings are the Pierce-Nichols House (1782), the Cook-Oliver House (1802-3), and the Gardner-Pingree House (1805), all in Salem.

Still another proponent of the Federal style was Asher Benjamin. Extant Benjamin buildings include the First Deerfield Academy (1797-8, now Memorial Hall); the Captain Gideon Colton House (1796), Longmeadow; the Old West Church (1806) and the Charles Street Meeting House (1807), both in Boston. Benjamin's designs were less influential than his books, which made a significant contribution to American architecture. The Country Builder's Assistant, published at Greenfield in 1797, is believed to be the first American book on architecture. The American Builder's Companion (Boston, 1806) made standard details of the Federal style available to the local carpenter-builder, and later works, among them The Practical House Carpenter (Boston, 1830), marked the transition to Greek Revival and the romantic styles.

Greek Revival architecture reached Massachusetts in the second decade of the nineteenth century. Again, building traditions were strong, and the Greek style was most accepted in newer towns or in those where an economic boom was generating new growth--Boston, New Bedford, Nantucket, Worcester, Springfield and the Connecticut Valley towns. With the new style came an increased use of granite as a construction material.

The principal figure in Boston's shift to the Greek Revival style was Alexander Parris. His major works in the city include the bow-fronted David Sears House (1816), St. Paul's Church (1819) with its entrance portico and simple pediment, and the Quincy, or Faneuil Hall, Markets (begun 1825) with their domed and porticoed central building; later works include a number of structures at the Boston Navy Yard, the famous drydock among them. Parris' co-architect for St. Paul's Church was Solomon Willard, who designed a number of his own structures, among them the Bunker Hill Monument (1825-42).

The building boom in New Bedford and Nantucket was generated by rapid expansion of the whaling industry from the 1820's through the 1840's. Significant New Bedford buildings include the Joseph Grinnell Mansion (1836), attributed to Russell Warren, and the Custom House (1834-37), designed by Robert Mills. Nantucket architecture of the same period represents a casebook of variations on the Greek Revival style, ranging from the Edward Hammond House (1830), a cottage with corner pilasters and center doorway with pilasters supporting an entablature, to the Swain-Hadwen House (c. 1845), a temple form with colossal tetra-style Corinthian portico.

Elias Carter, working in Worcester after 1828, is typical of the local builder-architect who followed the pattern books in shifting from the Federal to the Greek Revival style. Carter's work was large in scale but simple in mass and frequently featured a two-story Doric or Ionic colonade running the width of the building. Characteristic examples of his work are the Daniel Waldo House (1830), the Colonel Simeon Burt House (1834), the Colonel Levi Lincoln House (1836), and the Stephen Salisbury Mansion (1836-38).

Isaac Damon of Northampton was also a noted designer of Greek Revival buildings and of churches in particular. His earliest extant church, the First Church of Christ, Congregational (1819), at Springfield is a transition between the Federal and Greek Revival styles, but set the pattern Damon was to follow for church designs throughout his career: a rectangular mass with a gable roof, a giant portico serving as the focal point for the entrance, and a tower rising to a three-stage spire. The oldest buildings at Amherst College, the North and South colleges and the chapel (1821-27), are attributed to Damon; the chapel with its Doric portico and flat-topped three-stage tower clearly follows Damon's church form.

Of the romantic styles of architecture popularized during the mid-nineteenth century two, the Gothic Revival and the Italianate, were used widely in Massachusetts. The textbook example of the Gothic Revival in a residence is the William J. Rotch House (1846) in New Bedford, designed by A. J. Davis. Two other buildings, the Virgin-Coburn House (1841) in Cambridge and the Hall-Spring House (c. 1846) in Northfield, display Gothic and Greek Revival details in combination. Examples of the Gothic Revival in church architecture are numerous; among them are the First Parish Church, Unitarian (1833) in Cambridge, designed by Isaiah Rogers; the First Congregational Church (1834, 1840) in Nantucket; St. Luke's Episcopal Church (1836) in Lanesboro; and the First Unitarian Church (1836-38, originally Congregational) in New Bedford, designed by A. J. Davis and Russell Warren. For the Italianate style there is also a textbook example, the Mills-Stebbins Villa (1849-51) in Springfield; the work of Connecticut architect Henry A. Sykes, the building is considered by some critics to be among the best examples of the Italian Villa style in America.

The Second Empire or Mansard style appeared in Massachusetts in both public and residential buildings. An early example, and one which helped to popularize the style for public buildings throughout America, is Boston's Old City Hall (1862-65), designed by Gridley Bryant and Arthur Gilman, who claimed that its style grew "naturally out of the character and requirements of the structure." Other major examples of the style in public buildings are the Northborough Town Hall (1868), designed by A. R. Esty, and Citizen's Hall (1870) in Stockbridge, a small but elaborately detailed structure. Residential buildings in the Second Empire style range from the small Captain Edward Penniman House (1867-68) at Eastham to the massive Ross House (1868) in Cambridge, designed by James R. Richards.

From the beginning of the nineteenth century to the Civil War, the largest element in Massachusetts' economy was her mercantile trade, which gave rise to complexes of warehouses and related commercial buildings along the waterfront of every port city. In general, the architecture of such structures represents a type rather than a style, though individual buildings may reflect particular stylistic details. Newburyport's Market Square, currently undergoing sympathetic redevelopment, and New Bedford's Waterfront Historic District contain many examples of the mercantile-commercial type.

Perhaps most impressive is the collection of massive granite warehouses and store blocks which survive along Boston's waterfront; significant buildings include the Gardiner Building (believed to pre-date 1812); Commercial Wharf and Commercial Wharf West (1832-34, originally one building), designed by Isaiah Rogers; Lewis Wharf (1836-40), designed by Richard Bond; the Custom House Block (1846) on Long Wharf, also by Rogers; the Mercantile Wharf Building (1855-57), designed by Gridley Bryant; and the Commercial Block (1856), attributed to both Bryant and Calvert Vaux. Also of major importance here is the McLauthlin Building (c. 1864), the earliest extant cast iron front in New England and possibly the best example of the type north of New York City. Adjacent brick row buildings on Fulton and Commercial Streets create a unique environment of commercial architecture of the 1830's to 1860's.

Nineteenth century industrial architecture in Massachusetts also represents a type rather than a style. Beginning in the second decade and rapidly accelerating through the Civil War and after, Massachusetts' industries generated complexes of buildings, some of which were in effect whole new towns. The focal point of each such complex was the mill or factory itself, with workers' housing (boarding houses, double and row houses) nearby and, at a greater distance, more substantial homes for managers and owners.

Though many industrial buildings have been lost in the current century through gradual deterioration or recent urban renewal, significant mill and factory complexes may still be seen throughout the state. They include the Tremont Nail Factory and related structures at Wareham, the Crown and Eagle Mills and Rogerson's Village in North Uxbridge, the Dwight Company mills and housing in Chicopee, the Hadley Falls Company housing in Holyoke, and the massive granite mills of the Durfee Company in Fall River.

In 1865, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, then located in Boston, established the first professional school of architecture in America. William R. Ware, the school's first director, created a curriculum based on the organized teaching methods used by the Ecole des Beaux Arts. Ware was also the designer, in collaboration with Henry Van Brunt, of the most outstanding Ruskinian or Victorian Gothic building in Massachusetts, Memorial Hall (1878) at Harvard University, Cambridge.

In architecture as in other fields, the period after the Civil War was one of exploration and experimentation for Americans, and the Ruskinian was not the only eclectic style to appear. The Queen Anne style, developed by R. Norman Shaw in England during the late 1860's, became popular in America after the Centennial Exposition of 1876, where it was used for the buildings which housed the British delegation. American architects tended to emphasize different aspects of the style for urban and suburban areas. Queen Anne was well suited for city buildings, particularly row houses, because of its flexible proportions, large window areas, informal if copious decoration, and primarily brick construction; a good example is the house at 178 Marlborough Street in Boston's Back Bay, designed by the firm of Cabot and Chandler. In

suburban areas, the architect concentrated on the rambling, informal plan and picturesque qualities of the Queen Anne style, which he developed in wood; typical of this approach is the William Cook House (1876) in Cambridge, designed by W. P. P. Longfellow. Of non-residential buildings in the Queen Anne style, perhaps the best example in Massachusetts is the Boston Art Club (1881-82), designed by William Ralph Emerson (a distant cousin of the poet Ralph Waldo Emerson).

About 1880, Queen Anne began to be replaced as the most up-to-date form for houses by the Shingle Style, a derivative of Queen Anne which also borrows from New England architecture of the seventeenth century. The major proponent of this new style, certainly in the Bay State, was William Ralph Emerson, a native of Illinois but a Massachusetts resident for most of his life. Many examples of Emerson's work in the Shingle Style are extant, among them the Alexander Cochrane House (1881) and the General Charles G. Loring House (1881), both at Pride's Crossing, Beverly; the Augustus Hemenway House (1883) in Canton; and the architect's own house (1886) in Milton. Other significant Shingle houses in Massachusetts are the work of an architect who was concurrently developing his own Romanesque style; Henry Hobson Richardson; these buildings include the F. L. Ames Gate Lodge (1880-81) at North Easton and the Stoughton House (1882-83) in Cambridge.

Following his graduation from Harvard and study at the Ecole des Beaux Arts, Richardson set up practice in New York in 1865. Seven years later, in 1872, he won the commission for Boston's Trinity Episcopal Church, completed in 1878. Besides bringing its architect instant fame and causing him to move to Boston, this building did more than any other to change the American concept of Romanesque to the Richardsonian version, characterized by massive round arches, use of different materials (generally stone) for walls and other structural features, broad roof planes, and general largeness and simplicity of form.

Numerous Richardson buildings survive in Massachusetts: they include the North Congregational Church (1872-73) and Hampden County Courthouse (1871-73) in Springfield; the Woburn Library (1878) and the Thomas Crane Library (1880-83) in Quincy; Sever and Austin Halls (1878; 1881-83) at Harvard University, Cambridge; and Boston's Brattle Square Church (1870-74; now First Baptist), whose four trumpeting angels are known locally as the "Holy Beanblowers."

Particularly noteworthy is the group of five buildings which Richardson designed for the Ames family in North Easton: the Ames Free Library (1877), Ames Memorial Hall (1879), the Gate Lodge (1881), mentioned above, the Old Colony Railroad Station (1881), and the Ames Gardener's Cottage (1884). Richardson was assisted in his work in North Easton by the noted landscape architect Frederick Law Olmsted. The two also collaborated in Olmsted's work on the Boston park system, the "Emerald Necklace", for which Richardson designed the Fenway Bridge (1880-81).

Beginning in the 1880's and continuing in some areas as late as 1930, the Second Renaissance Revival was an attempt by architects, led by the firm of McKim,

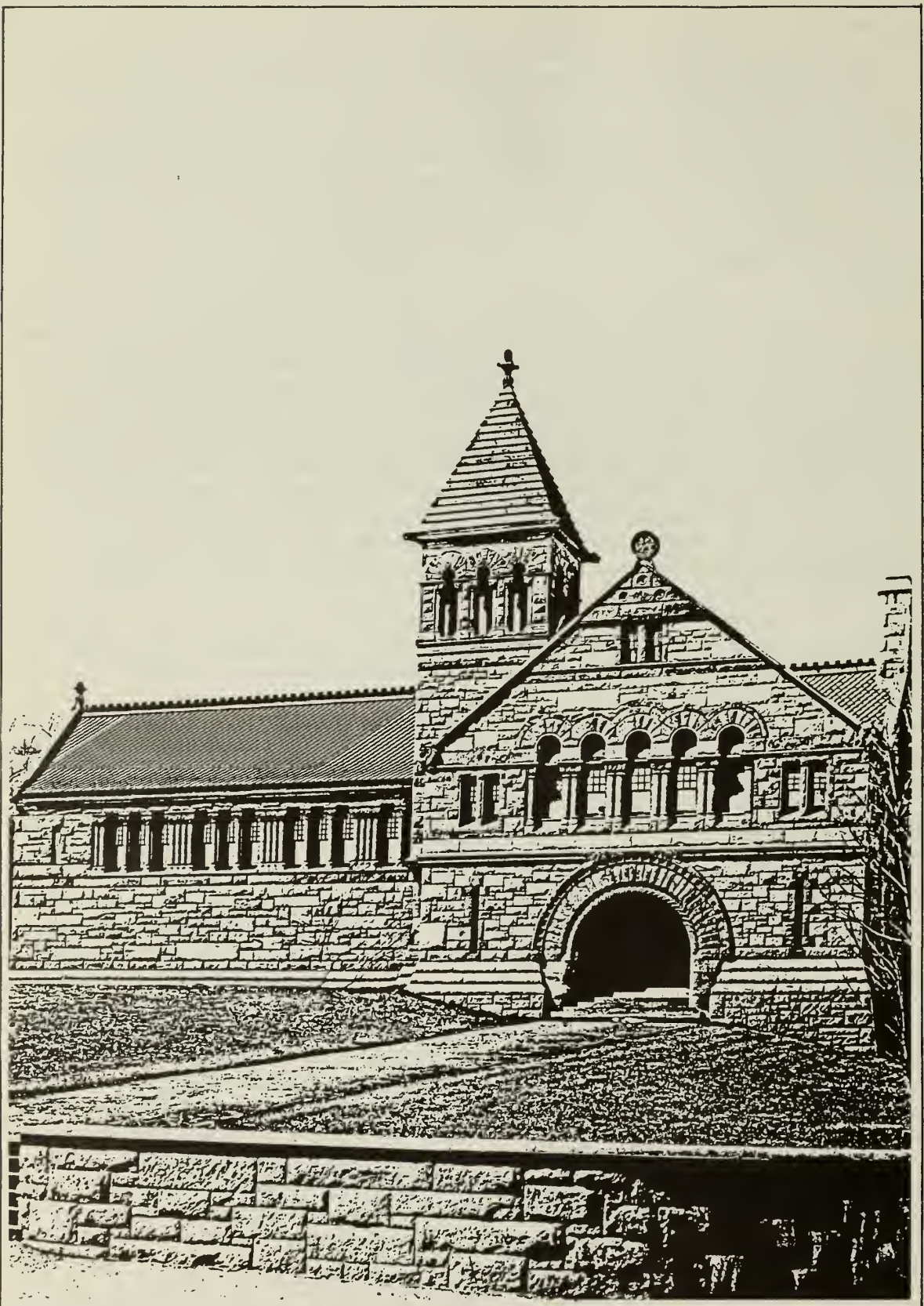
Mead, and White, to return to a style of simplicity and discipline, as opposed to the very different qualities of the popular post-Civil War styles. The outstanding Second Renaissance Revival building in Massachusetts, and a major example of the style in America, is McKim, Mead, and White's Boston Public Library (1888-92); its smooth-cut granite exterior, arcaded front facade, and monumental scale yet sparse detail are archetypal. The movement toward a more ordered architecture continued into the twentieth century with the Neo-Classical Revival. In Massachusetts, this shift from the Italian to simpler Greek models is well illustrated in the Municipal Buildings (1913) designed for the City of Springfield by the firm of Pell and Corbett.

Like the Renaissance Revival, the Georgian Revival was motivated by a desire for greater simplicity and discipline, and was introduced by the same architectural firm, McKim, Mead, and White. As early as 1883, the firm had added Georgian detail to the Appleton House at Lenox, though the plan of the building was essentially Shingle Style. By 1890, McKim, Mead, and White were designing full-blown Georgian Revival buildings, among them the J. A. Beebe House, the F. D. Amory House, and the Richard Olney House, all in Boston's Back Bay. Equally important in the development of the Georgian Revival style was the Boston firm of Little and Browne. Arthur Little's Early New England Interiors was published in 1878, one year after McKim, Mead, and White's famous sketching tour of the New England coast, which included stops in Marblehead, Salem, and Newburyport in Massachusetts. Examples of Little's application of the Georgian Revival style include the Joseph Thorp House (1888) in Cambridge and the architect's own house (1890), again in Boston's Back Bay.

Later examples of the Georgian Revival style appear throughout Massachusetts. Noteworthy buildings include the group of residences built on Worcester's Massachusetts Avenue at the turn of the century. Of the eleven buildings on this short street, developed from the estate of Stephen Salisbury under careful restrictions, only three cannot be labelled Georgian Revival. Of these one is an original Georgian building, the Trumbull Mansion, constructed in 1751 as the second Worcester County Courthouse and moved to its present location in 1899. The other exceptions, numbers 12 and 15 Massachusetts Avenue, are both examples of another revival style popular at the turn of the century, Tudor or Jacobethan.

An important factor in the development of contemporary architecture, both in Massachusetts and throughout the United States, was the arrival of Walter Gropius. For his own house in Lincoln (1938), Gropius used the International Style, which he had been instrumental in developing in Germany. Though Gropius gradually moved away from this style, partly in response to American conditions, its influence can still be seen in his later work. This is particularly the case with the Graduate Center (1949) designed for Harvard University, where Gropius was for many years the chairman of the Department of Architecture in the School of Design.

Within the last twenty years, other European architects have designed significant buildings in Massachusetts; perhaps best known are Alvar Aalto's Baker



Ames Library, North Easton

House (1947) and Eero Saarinen's Kresge Auditorium (1953) and Chapel (1954), all for the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Critical reaction to Harvard University's Carpenter Center for the Visual Arts (1961) varies, but its historical significance as the only building in the United States designed by Le Corbusier is unquestioned.

Art

In its earliest days, Massachusetts did not provide an hospitable environment for the artist, for the restraints of economic necessity and puritanic bias prevented a free expression in the arts. Instead, emphasis was placed on handicraft and production of articles for household use -- furniture, utensils, pewter, silver, textiles. Based on English prototypes, these articles were made to satisfy local needs; surviving examples show both simple good taste and the native talent of their makers for adaptation of materials. Gradually the combination of increasing wealth and personal pride gave rise to the primitive portraits of the early limners. These artisans, many of whom had branched from the more practical callings of coach or sign painting, produced flat, descriptive works showing little concern for nature or critical observation of society. Some peddled their wares from house to house, carrying portraits completely painted except for the face, to be bargained for by prospective clients.

In the eighteenth century, portraiture developed into a specialty. John Smibert (1688-1751) came from Scotland to Boston to paint and also drew the designs for Faneuil Hall. Joseph Blackburn (major work 1753-1763), Robert Feke (c. 1705-1750), and Ralph Earle (major work 1751-1761) were among the other early exponents of this genre. The art of portraiture reached a notable height in the canvases of John Singleton Copley (1738-1815), which clearly depict not only the appearance but also the character of his subjects. In the opinion of many, Copley executed his finest paintings in Massachusetts, before going to England to live. Gilbert Stuart (1755-1828) settled in Boston, where he painted outstanding Americans of the early republican period.

The household arts continued to be of major importance and often surpassed the pictorial arts. Notable early silversmiths, including Robert Sanderson (1608-1693), Jeremiah Dummer (1645-1718), and John Coney (1655-1722), were succeeded by the versatile Paul Revere (1735-1818), who, in addition to tankards, punchbowls, and candlesticks, made silver dental plates which he advertised as "of real Use in Speaking and Eating." The first articles of furniture of artistic significance to be made in Massachusetts were carved oak chests, which evolved into highboys and desks. John Goddard (1723-1785), who produced outstanding pieces in Santo Domingo mahogany, was a native of Dartmouth, Massachusetts, but spent the major part of his career in Rhode Island. The workshops of the Shaker communities produced a variety of articles for daily use which combined the virtues of simplicity, functionalism, and style. Crude

glass lamps and bottles were being manufactured in Peabody as early as 1638; Deming Jarves (1790-1868), head of the Boston and Sandwich glass works, revolutionized the glass industry with his new methods of furnace construction, his rediscovery of the method of manufacturing red lead, and his inventions in color making.

During the nineteenth century, Massachusetts continued to produce noted artists or to be associated with their work, though many went elsewhere for study and stimulus. Chester Harding (1792-1866) carried the tradition of portraiture well into the nineteenth century. Gloucester's Fitz Hugh Lane (1804-1865) made a contribution not only to American art but also to history. The accurate, detailed portrayal of vessels and landscapes in his marine paintings are significant records of an important era, as are his historical accounts of naval engagements. Samuel F. B. Morse, after studying abroad, found no recognition and no market for his work and so turned to inventing, though his successes in that field never consoled him for his failure as an artist. James Abbott McNeill Whistler (1843-1903) and Winslow Homer (1836-1910) were Massachusetts natives. Both sought escape from the contemporary American scene, one in the enchantment of European life, the other in the solitude of Prout's Neck on the coast of Maine. Albert Pinkham Ryder, a New Bedford native noted for his seascapes, also avoided the American scene but by withdrawing into himself and painting from personal resource. George Fuller (1822-1884), another Massachusetts native and a resident of Deerfield, painted in a gentle, sentimental style. Vermonter William Morris Hunt (1824-1879) became a resident of Boston and exercised considerable influence through his interest in the Barbizon school in France, particularly the work of Millet. Hunt's friend and pupil John La Farge (1835-1910) was commissioned by the architect Henry Hobson Richardson to paint murals in Trinity Church on Copley Square, Boston. Across the same square stands the Boston Public Library, where murals cover the walls on the second and third floors, including a series by the French neo-classicist Puvis de Chavannes (1824-1898), the "Quest of the Holy Grail" series by Edwin Abbey (1852-1911), and the elaborate theological sequence by John Singer Sargent (1856-1925), considered by some his finest work.

The art of sculpture in Massachusetts found its first expression in the carving of gravestones. These memorials, which can be found in early burial grounds throughout the Commonwealth, give evidence of authentic talent for carving in their decorative borders, sacred symbols, and ruminative epitaphs and often show more vitality than is present in plastic art of later date. Massachusetts artisans also revealed their native talent for carving in furniture, ships' figureheads, weathervanes, scrimshaw, and decorative details of houses but were far less successful when they turned to the formal art of portraiture. Salem's Samuel McIntire (1757-1811) displayed a particular gift for combining art and function in his carved portals and architectural decorations.

Massachusetts native Horatio Greenough (1805-1852) went to Italy to assimilate neo-classical ideas and achieved a distinguished reputation

as both sculptor and critic. There were other Massachusetts sculptors, among them Henry Kirke Brown (1814-1886), Harriet Hosmer (1830-1908), and Thomas Ball (1819-1911), whose equestrian statue of George Washington stands in the Boston Public Garden. Many nineteenth century pieces, generally Italianate or official in nature, are on view throughout the Commonwealth. The most native of these are the diminutive portrait groups executed by John Rogers (1829-1904) of Salem, descriptive sculpture illustrating contemporary life in America. Outstanding Massachusetts sculptures include the "Shaw Memorial," a high relief in bronze by Augustus Saint-Gaudens, which stands opposite the State House in Boston, and "Dean Chapin," by the same sculptor, in Springfield. "The Minuteman" in Concord and "John Harvard" in Harvard Yard, Cambridge, are the work of Daniel Chester French, who studied under a Boston teacher and for many years maintained a summer studio, "Chesterwood," in Stockbridge.

Contemporary artists began to gain public recognition of their work through the Federal Art Project of the New Deal's Works Progress Administration. While the Project produced much work in conventional styles, it also provided a living for many talented young artists, who were able to devote their spare time to painting and sculpture in far more innovative styles. Today Rockport, Gloucester, and Provincetown are the sites of major art colonies, as they have been for the last half century. Boston's Institute of Contemporary Art exhibits both local and internationally known contemporary artists. Excellent museums throughout the Commonwealth show an increasing range of interest in their collections, among them the Worcester Art Museum, Smith College Art Museum, De Cordova Museum in Lincoln, Harvard University's Fogg and Busch-Reisinger Museums, and the Clark Art Institute in Williamstown. The Museum School of Boston's Museum of Fine Arts continues to play a substantial role in developing area artists, and the art departments of the Commonwealth's many universities and colleges are successfully introducing their own painters and sculptors.

Literature

In any summary of America's contribution to world literature, Massachusetts authors would be seen to have contributed much, in terms of both quality and quantity. The list of major Massachusetts authors is long and impressive, including (among others) Franklin, Bryant, Emerson, Thoreau, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Lowell, Melville, Holmes, Whittier, Dickinson, Howells, James, Eliot, and Dos Passos.

When the Puritans arrived in Massachusetts Bay, they found the Separatist dissenters of Plymouth Colony before them. To their alarm the Salem Church soon fell under this "radical" influence. The opposing opinions of the two colonial groups resulted in a battle of words in which the conservatives were represented by John Cotton, Nathaniel Ward, author of The Simple Cobbler of Agawam (1647), John Eliot, apostle to the Indians,

Samuel Sewall, diarist, Cotton Mather, dogmatic in religion but progressive in natural science and medicine, and Increase Mather. The radicals counted fewer but, on the whole, more trenchant writers: Hugh Peter, Nathaniel Morton, Edward Johnson, author of Wonder-Working Providence (1654), Roger Williams, and John Wheelwright.

The first press to be set up in America was that of Stephen Daye at Cambridge, under the control of Harvard College, which issued the Bay Psalm Book in 1640. Daye was succeeded by Samuel Green, who printed John Eliot's Indian New Testament in 1661 and the entire Bible in 1663. In 1669, Green issued Captain Nathaniel Morton's New England's Memorial, noteworthy for having not only a printer but a publisher, H. Usher of Boston. The first press in Boston was set up in 1675 by John Foster, and by 1686 that town boasted eight bookshops.

Massachusetts authors did not limit themselves entirely to theological tracts and sermons in the seventeenth century. Mary Rowlandson's account of her captivity among the Indians, the first American prose work written by a woman, appeared in a second edition in 1682 (no copy of the first edition has survived). The anonymous Relation, describing the Plymouth settlement, appeared in 1622. Two years later, Edward Winslow's Good News from New England, written like a letter home, described the advantages of the new country. William Bradford, governor of Plymouth Colony from 1621 to 1657 with the exception of five years, wrote a History of Plymouth Plantation in 1630-1646; this manuscript was lost for two hundred years but finally appeared and was published by the Massachusetts Historical Society in 1856. Captain Morton obviously had access to Bradford's material, for he used much of it in his New England's Memorial.

Poetry as well as prose was produced in this period. Benjamin Tompson's 650-line epic of King Philip's War, New England's Crisis, appeared in 1676 and Peter Folger's A Looking-Glass for the Times in 1677. Anne Bradstreet's collection of gentle verses, The Tenth Muse, Lately Sprung Up in America, was published in London in 1650 and in Boston in 1678. Michael Wigglesworth's Day of Doom, an epic of the last judgement, appeared in 1662 and was widely read for a hundred years thereafter.

Until the eighteenth century, before a Massachusetts printer issued a book, he had to secure what amounted to an imprimatur; and if an author wrote on a subject even mildly heretical, he published, if at all, in England. This situation came to an end in 1721, when Benjamin Franklin's brother James founded the New England Courant at Boston with the aid of the Hell Fire Club. Benjamin Franklin, then working in his brother's printshop, contributed the satiric "Silence Dogwood" papers to the Courant, the first of which was submitted anonymously. The Courant was an American version of the Spectator, much different from the conservative Boston Gazette (established in 1719) in its liveliness and its literary tone.

The mid-eighteenth century was a period of political pamphleteering, in which every agitator was an author. The most brilliant of these, James Otis the younger, is best remembered for "The Rights of the British Colonies Asserted and Proved" (1764) and the "Letter to a Noble Lord" (1765). John Adams, Oxenbridge Thacher, and Josiah Quincy also produced political tracts, as did Noah Webster, author of the dictionary and the blue-backed speller. Perhaps the prototype of them all is Samuel Adams with his Committees of Correspondence and his "Massachusetts Circular Letter" of 1768. In the hectic years from 1770 to 1776, Isaiah Thomas published The Massachusetts Spy, which supported the cause of revolution. Founder of the American Antiquarian Society, Thomas also became the publisher of The Royal American Magazine (1774-1775), chiefly noted for carrying engravings by Paul Revere, The Worcester Magazine (1786-1788), and The Massachusetts Magazine (1789-1796).

The North American Review, a quarterly magazine of literature, criticism, and history, was founded at Boston in 1815 by a group whose goal was the development of an American literature no longer subservient to that of England. It was here that William Cullen Bryant, Massachusetts native and one of the first American authors of genuine talent, published his best known poems, "Thanatopsis" and "To a Waterfowl." With the establishment of the Review and of two great publishing houses -- Ticknor and Company (1833), later Ticknor and Fields (the direct predecessors of Houghton Mifflin), and Little and Brown (1837) -- literature in Massachusetts had a firm foundation. In 1837, America and Massachusetts in particular declared intellectual independence of England when Emerson delivered his Phi Beta Kappa Society speech, "The American Scholar," at Harvard. In the remaining decades of the nineteenth century, and especially in the 1840's and 50's, often called the American Renaissance, Massachusetts produced an amazing outburst of literature -- prose, poetry, history, philosophy, and social commentary.

Mid-century intellectuals and liberals orbited around Concord and its residents Ralph Waldo Emerson and Henry David Thoreau. Frequent visitors included Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes, William Ellery Channing, and Harvard President Charles William Eliot. Among the temporary residents at Concord were Nathaniel Hawthorne, Bronson Alcott, and his daughter Louisa May Alcott. Though Hawthorne did some writing while in Concord (Mosses from an Old Manse), his most famous work, The Scarlet Letter, was written in his home-town of Salem. During his Berkshire residence in the 1850's, Hawthorne encouraged his friend Herman Melville, then living at Pittsfield, to complete Moby Dick. Though Melville was a native of New York, his paternal grandfather, Major Thomas Melville, was a Bostonian, and the author's experiences while sailing on ships out of Massachusetts ports provided the background for his major works.

Magazines of the mid-century were oriented not toward their readers or advertisers but toward their writers, who included the leading literary figures of the day. The Dial (1840-1844), although announced as "A Magazine for Literature, Philosophy, and Religion," under the editorship

of Margaret Fuller, became a forum for the ideas of the Transcendentalists centered at Concord. The Atlantic Monthly, founded in 1857, was the organ of the more conservative authors concentrated in Boston and Cambridge, including Oliver Wendell Holmes, who named the magazine, and James Russell Lowell, its first editor.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, born in Portland while Maine was still a part of Massachusetts, was one of the first professors of modern languages in an American university and the average nineteenth century American's favorite poet. His best known works include Evangeline, The Courtship of Miles Standish, and Tales of a Wayside Inn, which made Paul Revere an American folk hero. Haverhill native John Greenleaf Whittier was poet, politician, Quaker, and abolitionist in one. Probably the nineteenth century's best balladist, he is best known for his poem "Snowbound," published in 1866. Emily Dickinson of Amherst carried on a literary correspondence with prominent authors and critics of her time but was not recognized as one of America's greatest poets until the twentieth century. Only two of her poems were published during her lifetime, one of which appeared anonymously in the Springfield Republican.

Nearly all of the nineteenth century's important historians were either natives of Massachusetts or associated with Harvard University, among them Charles Francis Adams, brothers Brooks and Henry Adams, John Lothrop Motley, and Jared Sparks, Harvard's first professor of non-religious history and later its president. Salem native William Prescott, though nearly blind through much of his writing career, produced a number of outstanding works, in particular the History of the Conquest of Mexico (1843) and the History of the Conquest of Peru (1847). George Bancroft of Worcester, who wrote the first major history of the United States (10 volumes, 1834-1874), served as Secretary of the Navy under President Polk (1845-46); as Acting Secretary of War (1845), he sent General Zachary Taylor into disputed Texas territory, laying the foundation for American acquisition of land from Mexico. Boston Brahmin Francis Parkman's greatest work was his long study of England and France in the new world, which began with the History of the Conspiracy of Pontiac (1851) and ended with A Half-Century of Conflict (1892); however, he is best known to the general public for The California and Oregon Trail (1849).

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, literature in Massachusetts was motivated by new social and artistic currents and reinforced by scientific method. These new influences were expressed directly in Edward Bellamy's utopian novel Looking Backward (1891). Henry James and his disciple Edith Wharton wrote biting psychological and moral portraits of the middle and upper levels of contemporary society. William Dean Howells was both praised and criticized for his realistic studies of current social, economic and ethical problems. The realism pioneered by Howells reached its height in the works of long-time Provincetown resident John Dos Passos, which were essentially social documentaries rather than novels. His massive trilogy U.S.A. - -

The 42nd Parallel (1930), Nineteen-Nineteen (1931), The Big Money (1936) - is a comprehensive picture of American life in the first three decades of this century.

In 1910 The Atlantic Monthly published the first works of Amy Lowell, a social and poetic rebel who smoked cigars and wrote sensitive impressions or "images" of life around her. It was Miss Lowell who introduced many young American poets to the French symbolists and impressionists of the 1890's and the Imagists and who later satirized some of them in "A Critical Fable," patterned on a similar work by her great-uncle James Russell Lowell. Between 1913 and the beginning of World War I, these young poets - among them, Massachusetts residents T. S. Eliot, Conrad Aiken, and Robert Hillyer - generated a renaissance in American poetry.

Music

The only music common to the early Puritan settlers of Massachusetts was that of the psalms, which were sung by rote to one of five or six standard tunes, the precentor chanting each psalm line-by-line, the congregation echoing him. This rote singing proved so unpleasant that a movement arose in the Puritan Church itself - not without strong opposition - to introduce singing by note. The ninth edition of the Bay Psalm Book, issued in 1698, contained thirteen tunes in two-part harmony, the first music to be printed in America. In 1714 or 1715, there appeared what may be described as the first American musical textbook - "A very plain and easy Introduction to the Art of Singing Psalm Tunes: With the Canters, or Trebles, of Twenty-Eight Psalm Tunes contrived in such a manner that the Learner may attain the Skill of Singing with the greatest Ease and Speed imaginable." Written by Rev. John Tufts, the book was published in Boston and ran through ten editions by 1744. It was the forerunner of other such instruction books and coincided with the formation of singing schools - one of which may have existed as early as 1717.

In 1714 the first pipe-organ in America was installed at King's Chapel, Boston. The organist, Edward Enstone, brought with him from England a large collection of musical instruments and instructions for their use. There was already a growing interest in instrumental music, and soon the first concerts began to be given - usually for the benefit of the poor. The first known advertisement for an American concert appeared in the Boston News-Letter, December 16-23, 1731. In 1732, the New England Weekly Journal carried notice of "Concerts of Musick performed on sundry instruments at the Concert Room in Wing's Lane near the Town Dock (Boston)." A vocal and instrumental concert was given in the newly built Faneuil Hall in 1744. From that time on, concerts became frequent, and instrumental music began to find a natural place in the home.

Some of the groundwork for the organization of music as a creative discipline was laid by the gradual formation and training of church

choirs, the founding of singing schools, and the development of musical societies. One of the earliest of these, still in existence, is the Stoughton Musical Society, founded by William Billings in 1786. Billings' New England Psalm Singer and subsequent collections may be said to be the beginning of musical composition in America. The opening of theatres also did much to stimulate public interest in music. The program for the first night of the Boston Theatre, February 3, 1794, included among other pieces "a grand symphony by Signor Haydn."

These modest beginnings were followed by substantial developments in the nineteenth century. In 1808 a group of students at Harvard founded the Pierian Sodality for the encouragement of instrumental music. Two years later Gottlieb Graupner, music publisher, engraver, and ex-oboist in Haydn's orchestra in London, formed a group of professional musicians for informal weekly concerts. This Philharmonic Society continued until 1824, overlapping the Handel and Haydn Society (1815), which Graupner also helped to found as a permanent choral group. The first major step toward professional training for musicians came in 1833 when Lowell Mason established the Boston Academy of Music. The Academy provided free vocal instruction for more than 1,000 children and 500 adults a year and in 1837 succeeded in introducing music into the curriculum of the Boston public schools. In 1840, under the leadership of its president and then Boston's Mayor, Samuel Eliot, the Academy decided to give up teaching and to engage the best orchestra it could afford to "give classical instrumental concerts." The immediate result was the first performance of Beethoven in Massachusetts. In 1837, graduates of the Pierian Sodality founded the Harvard Musical Association, reported to have had a greater influence on American music than any other group in the nation. For seventeen years, from 1865 onward, the Association presented symphony concerts under the direction of Carl Zerrahn. The New England Conservatory of Music, one of the leading schools of music in the country, was founded at Boston in 1867 by Dr. Eben Tourjee.

The Boston Symphony Orchestra was established by Henry Lee Higginson, a native New Yorker who made and lost several fortunes in Boston's financial world. Higginson organized the Symphony in 1881 under the direction of Sir George Henschel and paid its annual deficit until 1918. Concerts were given in the Boston Music Hall until the present Symphony Hall opened in 1900. Wilhelm Gericke, the Orchestra's second conductor, decided that if his musicians were to keep at top performance pitch they should play during the usually non-playing summer months. He organized the first Boston "Pops" Concert on July 11, 1885, under the direction of Alfred Nevendorff; since 1930, the "Pops" Concerts, played by selected members of the Symphony, have been conducted by Arthur Fiedler. In 1929, Dr. Serge Koussevitsky, Symphony director from 1924 to 1949, instituted free summer concerts on the Charles River Esplanade, also played by selected members of the Orchestra under the direction of Arthur Fiedler. Now performed in the Hatch Memorial Shell, these concerts sometimes entertain over 20,000 persons nightly.

In 1936, the Boston Symphony Orchestra was given Tanglewood, the 210 acre estate of William A. Tappan in Lenox, Massachusetts. Since 1938, the Symphony has presented a six-week concert series there each summer, now attended by more than 100,000 people a year. The Berkshire Music Center was organized at Tanglewood in 1940 to provide facilities for young musicians to continue their training under leading professionals. In 1965, the Music Center was divided into the Performance Department, which admits singers, musicians, and composers, and the Tanglewood Institute, which offers specialized seminars for music teachers and non-professionals.

Massachusetts natives and residents have made significant contributions in the field of musical composition; among them are George Chadwick, Charles M. Loeffler, Arthur Foote, Henry F. B. Gilbert, Edward B. Hill, Charles Ruggles, and Bainbridge Crist. The Pipe of Desire (1906) by Frederick S. Converse of Newton was the first opera composed by an American to be performed in the Metropolitan Opera House. Harvard's Walter Piston won the Pulitzer Prize in 1948 and 1961 for his Symphony No. 3 and Symphony No. 7. Composer-conductor Leonard Bernstein, onetime protege of Boston Symphony conductor Serge Koussevitsky, is a Massachusetts native.

Theatre

In 1686, Increase Mather published a "Testimony Against Profane and Superstitious Customs," in the course of which he bemoaned the fact that there "is much discourse now of beginning Stage Plays in New England." Mather need not have worried. Under the stern influence of the Puritan aristocracy, which considered the theatre "the abode of a species of devil, who, if once allowed to exist, would speedily make converts," the discourse came to nothing, and drama remained largely an unknown quantity in Massachusetts until the end of the eighteenth century. Some plays were presented in the first half of that century, but seldom, and then only as private entertainment.

A performance of Otway's Orphan, or Unhappy Marriage at a coffee house on State Street, Boston, in 1750 led to the passage of "An Act to Prevent Stage Plays and Other Theatrical Entertainments," as likely to "occasion great and unnecessary expense and discourage industry and frugality," and also as tending to "increase immorality, impiety and a contempt for religion." High fines were prescribed for actors, spectators, and owners of premises where plays were presented. The law was strictly enforced and, on the whole, was supported by public opinion, perhaps because it did not make "private performances" or very unremunerative ones absolutely impossible.

Public opinion began to shift steadily, if imperceptibly, until the law was allowed to become a dead letter. In 1792, the New Exhibition Room -

- a theatre in everything but name - - opened in what is now Hawley Street, Boston, with an acrobatic performance by one "Monsieur Placide" followed by presentations of Garrick's Lethe and Otway's Venice Preserved, the latter announced as a "Moral Lecture in Five Parts." Subsequent performances of Romeo and Juliet, Hamlet, and Othello were likewise billed as "moral lectures." With these performances and the consequent arrest and discharge - - on a technicality - - of their manager, Joseph Harper, the real history of theatre in Massachusetts began.

Respectable citizens of Boston were now convinced that the drama was actually of social benefit; accordingly, many of the most influential people took an active part in the financing, planning, and building - - with Charles Bulfinch as architect - - of the Boston Theatre, completed at the corner of Federal and Franklin Streets in 1794. Despite the bankruptcy of the Boston Theatre at the end of its first season, a second theatre, the Haymarket, was built a year later; until 1803, when the Haymarket was torn down, a fierce competition made prosperity impossible for either.

The Boston Theatre did well for a quarter of a century, with an excellent stock company playing around such visiting stars as Kean, Macready, Forrest, and Junius Booth, and from 1860 to 1880 the Boston Museum in Tremont Street maintained one of the finest stock companies in the country. But the "star system," lamented as early as 1880 by William Clapp, a leading critic of the period, was gradually to make Boston a theatrical dependency of New York. Despite the temporary successes of John Craig and Mary Young at the Castle Square and of groups led by Leon Gordon, Edmund Clive, and Henry Jewett, attempts in the early decades of the twentieth century to develop stock companies in Boston generally failed.

Several developments in Massachusetts theatre during the twentieth century have been of major significance. In 1905, Professor George Pierce Baker introduced at Harvard his "47 Workshop" which emphasized new realistic techniques in playwriting. It was the first course in practical playwriting on an American campus and exerted a pronounced influence on the American theatre. Students of Professor Baker in his "47 Workshop" included Eugene O'Neill, George Abbott, Sidney Howard, and Thomas Wolfe. The Provincetown Players, one of the first Little Theatres in the nation, is noted for giving O'Neill's plays their first productions. Founded by George Cram Cook in 1915, the company opened at the Wharf Theatre, Provincetown, in 1916 with O'Neill's Bound East for Cardiff. During the next few years the Provincetown Players presented a number of O'Neill plays on the New York stage. In 1975, Boston remains an important try-out city for pre-Broadway productions. The Shubert, Colonial, and Wilbur theatres attract plays of substance throughout the season. Theatre critic Elliot Norton is nationally recognized for his perceptive comments. The Commonwealth's three major vacation areas, viz., Cape Cod and the islands, the North Shore, and the Berkshires, are centers for summer theatre productions.



Old Indian Meeting House, Mashpee

The Indians in Massachusetts

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The Paleo-Indian Hunters - 10,000 BP (Before Present)

The first migrants into what is present-day Massachusetts may not have been "Indians" in the commonly accepted sense of the term. These early peoples, whom we call paleo-Indian Hunters, lived on upland knolls and hills high above the arctic tundra-plants of ground spruce and lichens. These were large-game migratory hunters following caribou herds or hunting the rare mastodon in a continuous food quest. Three early campsites have been found in Massachusetts, the Bull Brook camp near Ipswich, one near Middleboro, and a third at Turner's Falls in the western part of the state. Hunting-points with fluted centers, not unlike those found on sites in New Mexico, identify these "paleo" peoples.

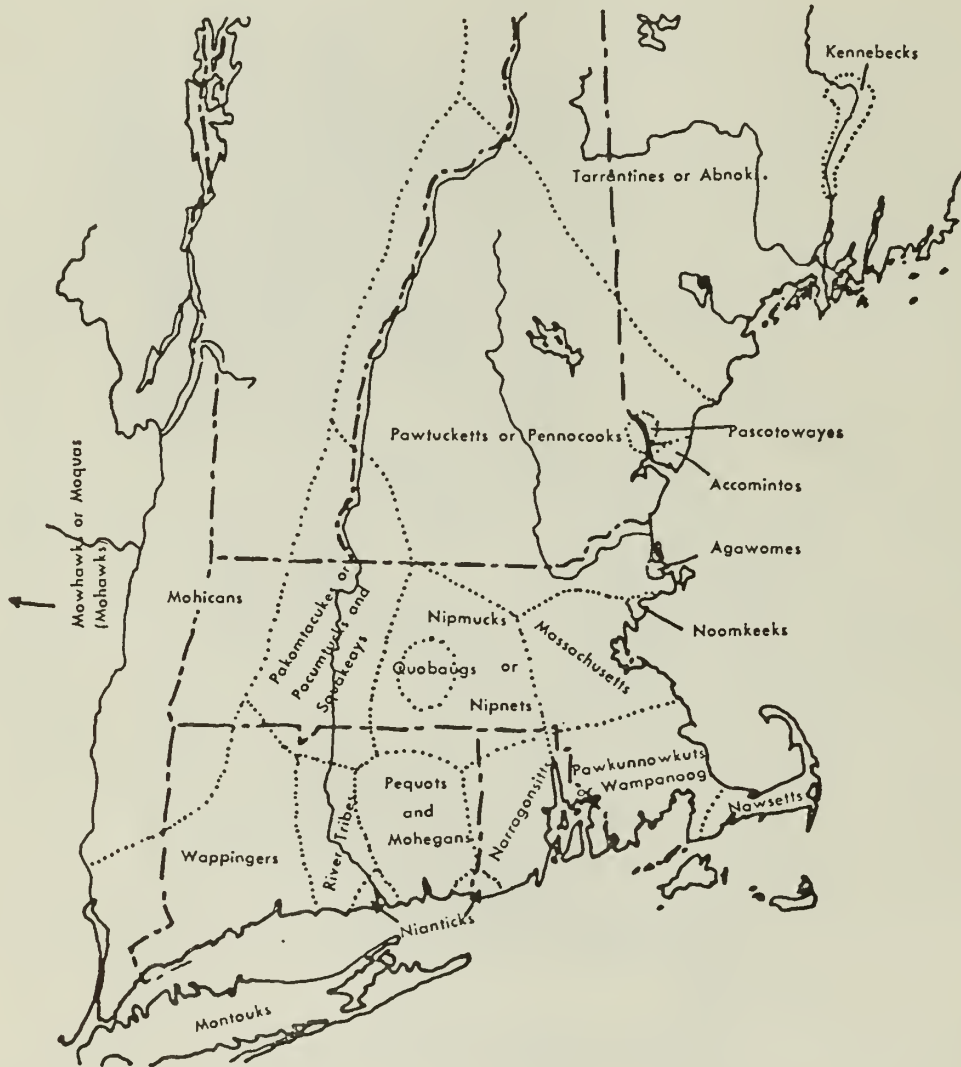
The Archaic Food Gatherers and Collectors - 7000 - 2000 BP

Rapid warming trends changed climate and life patterns of these early settlers. The caribou were replaced by the moose, elk and bear. Scrub spruce was replaced by a variety of hardwoods and conifers. Lakes and marsh areas were formed, supporting a variety of life. Seasonal changes established fish and bird migrations. New people moved into the area, probably coming from New York or perhaps Maine. The bird and animal migrations and the seasonal cycle helped determine food and other life-cycles. Fishing weirs, for example, such as one found in Boston, to trap alewives as they moved from the ocean to inland lakes for spawning, began in this period. The hunting of migratory birds, non-migratory animals, and the collecting of wild plants, nuts and roots or gathering of wild rice such as found in the Neponset marsh, provided new food and diet patterns. Tool kits were developed including such implements as: hammerstones, scrapers, choppers, arrow-points, spears, semi-lunar knives and atl-atl spear-throwing weights.

Similar equipment and food pattern styles extended all along the Atlantic coast. Little is known about this culture, even though more material has been retrieved from it than any other. On Lake Wapanucket, for example, near Middleboro, one of their burial sites was found. Migrants again moved into Massachusetts from New Jersey and New York at the end of the archaic period, bringing with them stone (steatite) bowls for boiling food. Whether these invaders merged with or killed off the archaic peoples, we are not yet sure.

The Woodland Horticulturalists - 2000 BP - 1620 CE (Christian Era)

In ever-increasing numbers, migrants moved to this state from the south. Pottery bowls replaced steatite, wildplant food was replaced by domestic foods such as pumpkins, beans, squash and maize. Migratory patterns of



Tribal lands of the Indians mentioned by Gookin. The tribal boundaries of the Mahicans, Wappingers, River Tribes and Montauks, not mentioned by Gookin, are added for perspective.

collecting and gathering food changed to a settled farming economy with occasional movements between winter-spring hunting-fishing camps and summer-autumn farming villages. Farming increased the available food supply and energy. The greater food supply increased populations to the extent that the once-small extended lineage families were requiring defined territorial boundaries within which to live. A political structure evolved to include many blood-related lineages (or clans) into a single political group, with authority invested in a person called a sachem. These political groups have names with which we are most familiar and continue today: the Massachusetts, Nawsetts, Mohicans, Nipmucks, Wampanoags, and to some extent, the Narragansetts and Pennacooks. (These Indians were first described in 1674 by Daniel Gookin in his book Historical Collections of the Indians in New England, from which the accompanying illustrations are drawn.)

Two events which were to prove catastrophic to the Indians occurred in the first quarter of the seventeenth century: the plague of 1616-17 which decimated an estimated 90% of the Indian population and destroyed the structure of their tribes; and coincidental and parallel to it, the migration and invasion of western Europeans to this coast, resulting, to the Indians, in an additional loss of property and privacy from which these native Americans have never recovered.

The Present - 1620 - 1975 CE

The fifty years between 1625 and 1675 were a period of continuous struggle for land (or loss of it) and power (or loss of it) between whites and Indians. Some accommodations were made. Notably, in 1642, the town of Weymouth granted the local Indians land and voting rights at town meetings. Such accommodations came to an end, and the build-up of pressures on the Indians climaxed, in a final assertion by King Phillip (Metacomet) in 1675 in the war bearing his name, of which the Indians could only be the losers.

Over the ensuing years the remaining Indians changed culturally and racially, gradually becoming a part of local ethnic populations. Despite such forced changes, many Indians have continued to today their psychological identification as Indians. Some live in the state's few tribal community-villages, as on Martha's Vineyard or Cape Cod. Viably important councils have formed, such as the Wampanoags, who draw their members from scattered individuals and families. Such groups are increasing in visibility, striving for the political and cultural recognition their ancestors could never attain.



Bulfinch Memorial, Mt. Auburn Cemetery, Watertown and Cambridge

The Role of the Blacks in Massachusetts History

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From colonial times until the present day, blacks have made substantive contributions to Massachusetts history. Phillis Wheatley was a noted poet in eighteenth century Boston. She was the author of a volume of verse entitled Poems on Various Subjects, Religious and Moral. Crispus Attucks was killed during the Boston Massacre of March 5, 1770. Salem Poor and Peter Salem participated in the Battle of Bunker Hill on June 17, 1775. Prince Hall, who had come from Barbados in 1765, was also a participant in the Battle of Bunker Hill. He served as a Methodist minister in Cambridge and became a spokesman for blacks throughout the Commonwealth. At the conclusion of the Revolutionary War, Prince Hall became the master of the black Masons. Paul Cuffe was another individual of distinction during the Revolutionary era. He was a merchant, sea captain, and shipbuilder. In 1780, Cuffe was one of the leaders in the struggle of the blacks of Dartmouth to obtain the right to vote. Later he subsidized a school building for the children of the community. A Quaker, he was an advocate of the colonization of free blacks to Africa.

During the nineteenth century the African Meeting House, established in 1806, became a religious and educational center for black Bostonians. The first minister of the Meeting House was Thomas Paul, the leader of the movement for Independent Negro Baptist Churches in America. In the 1820's, David Walker, a clothier merchant in Boston, became an articulate black exponent of abolitionism. His pamphlet, Walker's Appeal in Four Articles, was a classic of abolitionist literature. During this period Boston also became a center for the Underground Railroad. In 1854, the tragic case of Anthony Burns, an abortive example of the Underground Railroad, stimulated interest in the abolitionist cause. After the Civil War began, Massachusetts organized the first black regiment, the famous 54th. The regiment was largely recruited in the Boston area by one of the most distinguished blacks of the era, Frederick Douglass. In the post-bellum period, in 1866, Edwin G. Walker, the son of abolitionist David Walker, became the first black to be elected to the Massachusetts House of Representatives.

In the twentieth century Booker T. Washington organized the National Negro Business League. The first national convention of the League was held in Boston in August of 1900 with approximately 400 delegates in attendance. The objective of the League was to provide a basis for the exchange of information and inspiration among black businessmen. Opposition to Washington's conciliatory and apolitical attitude was led by the distinguished scholar and author, W. E. B. DuBois. A native of Great Barrington, he launched the Niagara Movement in 1905. This viewpoint argued for an immediate end to racial discrimination and segregation. DuBois was also one of the founders of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People in 1908. Another black opponent of Booker T. Washington was William Monroe Trotter, founder and editor of the weekly Boston Guardian from 1901 until 1934. In addition, Trotter was an advocate of the National Equal

Rights League. In more recent times, when Edward Brooke was elected Republican Senator from Massachusetts in 1966, he became the first black to serve in the United States Senate since 1881. Another articulate black leader, political and social critic Dick Gregory, became a resident of the Commonwealth in 1974 when he moved to Plymouth.

In summary, black leadership has had a major impact upon the social, political, and cultural affairs of the Commonwealth.

Population of Massachusetts 1765-1970

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YEARS	POPULATION
1765	240,433
1776	299,841
1784	357,510
1790	378,787
1800	422,845
1810	472,040
1820	523,287
1830	610,408
1837	701,331
1840	737,699
1850	994,514
1855	1,132,369
1860	1,231,066
1865	1,267,031
1870	1,457,351
1875	1,651,912
1880	1,783,085
1885	1,942,141
1890	2,238,943
1895	2,500,183
1900	2,805,346
1905	3,003,680
1910	3,366,416
1915	3,693,310
1920	3,852,356
1925	4,144,205
1930	4,249,614
1935	4,350,910
1940	4,316,721
1945	4,493,281
1950	4,690,514
1955	4,837,645
1960	5,148,578
1965	5,295,281
1970	5,630,224

The above population statistics are derived from the Provincial Census, the United States Census, and the State Census.

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Stebbins Villa, Springfield

Historic Preservation in Massachusetts

77

The purpose of this section is to present the background and current status of historic preservation in Massachusetts, with emphasis on the state program. The opening chapter summarizes the history of the preservation movement in Massachusetts, from the first organized attempt at preservation in 1847 to the passage of archeological legislation in 1973. The philosophy of the state historic preservation program is presented in the next chapter, followed by a discussion of the relationship of preservation planning to other state planning. The next chapter reviews major preservation problems facing Massachusetts in 1974, and the final chapter explains the Massachusetts Historical Commission's inventory and National Register procedures.

History of the Preservation Movement in Massachusetts

The first organized attempt at historic preservation in Massachusetts, and the first in the New England area, focused on the Old Indian House in Deerfield. The Old Indian House was the last Deerfield building that had survived the famous massacre of 1704. Though it had not been taken in that attack, the French and Indians had killed several of its inhabitants by chopping a hole in the front door and firing a musket through the hole.

In 1847, the owner of the Old Indian House decided that it was no longer convenient as a residence and offered it for sale. On November 23, the Gazette and Courier, published in Greenfield, carried an article urging that the public contribute funds to purchase the building and move it to a new site where it could be maintained as "a relic of olden time." At a subsequent town meeting, the residents of Deerfield passed a resolution calling for preservation of the building and appointed a five-member committee to collect funds for the project.

Though numerous public appeals were made, adequate funds could not be raised, and the Old Indian House was torn down within the next year. The front door with its hatchet marks was saved and sold to Dr. D. D. Slade of Boston. For more than a decade, the citizens of Deerfield organized groups and wrote letters, attempting to get this artifact returned. However, it was not until 1868 that Dr. Slade agreed to its sale. The doorway was brought back to Deerfield and is now displayed by the Pocumtuck Valley Memorial Association in its Memorial Hall.

A more widely known preservation effort, and an example of the continuing clash between historical and commercial values, was the attempt to save the Governor John Hancock House in Boston. A prominent colonial merchant, Hancock had been President of the Continental Congress, first signer of the Declaration of Independence, and first state governor of Massachusetts, serving in that capacity for nine terms. His home stood on valuable property facing Boston Common adjacent to the State House.

In 1859, Hancock's heirs offered to sell the house and land to the Commonwealth of Massachusetts for the sum of \$100,000. The legislature approved the purchase, and it was suggested that the Hancock House become the governor's mansion. However, the sale was not finalized, due to a delay in perfecting the title. Nothing more was done until 1863, when two businessmen offered the Hancock family \$120,000 for the property. Charles Hancock contacted the Boston City Council and urged that the property be bought by the City instead. The Council approved the idea, but by the time a committee had been set up to arrange the purchase, the land had been sold, and the house could not be maintained on its original site. The Hancock family then offered to donate the house and its furnishings to the City if it could be moved to a new location. The City's committee estimated that the Hancock House could be relocated on Boston Common or at a site nearby at a cost of \$17,500; pledges of private funds totaling \$6,000 were quickly received. When

it was discovered that the stone walls of the building could not be dismantled and that the cost of moving would therefore exceed the committee's estimate, the City Council voted to drop the project as too expensive, and the Hancock House was subsequently demolished.

The loss of the Hancock House was significant in two respects. First, it generated a distrust of government involvement in preservation that survived well into the present century. Second, it provided an object lesson and a rallying cry for preservationists, both in Massachusetts and elsewhere. The value of the object lesson became clear in the next decade when private efforts prevented the destruction of Boston's Old South Meeting House.

In 1869, the Old South Society purchased land for the construction of a new church in the Back Bay, where most of its congregation lived. Like the Hancock House, the Old South Meeting House stood on valuable land, at the corner of Washington and Milk Streets in the central business district. Though the sale of the Meeting House property would more than cover the cost of the Society's new building, a minority of the congregation insisted that the old structure be preserved because of its historical associations. Constructed in 1729 to replace an earlier meeting house, Old South had been the site of major events of the Revolutionary period, including the public meeting which preceded the Boston Tea Party. At the urging of this minority, the Old South Society attempted to sell the Meeting House to the Massachusetts Historical Society in 1872.

When this effort failed, the Old South Society proceeded to offer the Meeting House for sale for commercial purposes. On June 8, 1876, the building was sold at auction for \$1,350 (the value of the materials), subject to removal within sixty days. Demolition had begun when, on June 11, the firm of George W. Simmons and Son purchased the right to hold the building intact for seven days. A public meeting was held at the Meeting House on June 14 at which the principal speaker, Wendell Phillips, urged that "the saving of this landmark is the best monument you can erect to the men of the Revolution." A committee was formed to raise funds, and several thousand dollars were collected that night.

The first positive step toward successful preservation of the Meeting House came when twenty Boston ladies purchased the building for \$3,500, insuring that, whatever happened to the land, the building could be kept intact. It was not until September that the Old South Society was persuaded to sell the Meeting House land for \$400,000. The citizens' committee had collected \$75,000, and the New England Mutual Life Insurance Company agreed to give a mortgage for \$225,000. When a single donor, Mrs. Mary Hemenway, contributed the \$100,000 balance, the safety of the Meeting House was assured.

In 1877, the Old South Association was incorporated by the Massachusetts legislature; since that time, the Association has maintained the Meeting House as both a museum and a classroom for the study of American history. In addition, the Association has published more than 200 Old South Leaflets, covering a broad range of historical subjects.

The success of the private campaign for the Old South Meeting House generated preservation efforts on the part of the City of Boston, most immediately the restoration of the Old State House at the corner of Washington and State Streets. Built in 1712 as Boston's second Town House and rebuilt after a fire in 1747, the building had been used as the headquarters of the royal government of the Province of Massachusetts Bay and served as the Massachusetts State House until 1798, when the Bulfinch State House on Beacon Hill was completed. The building then served various other purposes until the late 1820's, when an attempt was made to demolish it to provide a site for a memorial to George Washington. The City reacted to this proposal by refitting the Old State House for use as a City Hall, which role it filled until 1840. The building was then rented for office space; by 1879 it was covered with signs and had been disfigured by the addition of a mansard roof.

In that year, William H. Whitmore and the members of the newly formed Boston Antiquarian Club began a campaign for the restoration of the building. The Revolutionary associations of the Old State House, similar to those of the Old South Meeting House, had their effect, and in 1881, the City Council approved a complete restoration of the building. Work was completed the following year at a cost of \$35,000, and the Bostonian Society, a new organization dedicated to the history of the City, was given a lease to the upper floor for a local history museum. City interest in preservation continued, particularly for buildings with Revolutionary associations; in 1898, the sum of \$103,000 was spent for restoration and fireproofing of Faneuil Hall.

Though often less dramatic and certainly less expensive than the fight to save the Old South Meeting House, numerous other examples might be cited of the successful preservation of significant buildings through private efforts. In some instances, such successes have been the work of individuals. Miss Caroline Emmerton purchased the Turner House in Salem, built about 1668, as the headquarters for a settlement association. However, when she discovered its importance as a literary landmark associated with Nathaniel Hawthorne, she moved the settlement activities to another location, restored the building, and opened the House of Seven Gables as a museum. Similarly, Miss Clara Endicott Sears rescued Fruitlands, the farmhouse near Harvard, Massachusetts, which had been the center of Bronson Alcott's short-lived Transcendental community.

Family associations have played an important role in the preservation of significant seventeenth century buildings in Massachusetts. The Fairbanks Family Association in America, the Alden Kindred, and the Pilgrim John Howland Society, among others, have restored and continue to maintain their ancestral homes.

By far the largest number of private preservation projects in Massachusetts have been the work of local historical societies, which exist in more than half of the Commonwealth's 351 cities and towns. Many of these organizations are responsible for the maintenance and museum operation of one or more buildings associated with the history of their particular community. Though local societies are sometimes criticized

for limiting their interests to the preservation of a single building and related artifacts, it must be remembered that without their continued efforts these buildings would have been lost.

In 1903, a state-wide organization for historical societies and associations, the Bay State Historical League, was formed. Through its quarterly meetings and bulletin, the League encourages cooperation among its more than 300 member organizations and provides them with current information on both legal and technical aspects of historic preservation.

Still another private organization, the Trustees of Reservations, has had an influence on the preservation movement reaching well beyond the borders of Massachusetts. Incorporated in 1891 through the efforts of Charles Eliot, a landscape architect, the Trustees are primarily concerned with the conservation of scenic open spaces for public benefit, but they also maintain several historic buildings, among them Nathaniel Hawthorne's Old Manse at Concord and the birthplace of poet William Cullen Bryant at Cummington. The Trustees have served as the model for numerous other organizations, perhaps the most important of them Britain's National Trust for Places of Historic Interest or Natural Beauty, which was, in turn, the inspiration for the National Trust for Historic Preservation in the United States.

In all of the cases mentioned above, the primary criterion for determining whether a particular building would be preserved was its historical associations, and its primary use afterward was as a museum. These basic principles were altered significantly through the work of the Society for the Preservation of New England Antiquities, the first regional preservation organization in the United States, incorporated in 1910.

In the words of the Society's founder, William Sumner Appleton, its purpose was "to save for future generations structures of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and the early years of the nineteenth, which are architecturally beautiful or unique, or have special historical significance." Further, the Society proposed "to preserve the most interesting of these buildings by obtaining control of them through gift, purchase or otherwise, and then to restore them and finally to let them to tenants under wise restrictions, unless local conditions suggest some other treatment." The phrases underlined illustrate the major characteristics of a new concept of preservation: the validity of architectural quality or uniqueness, unrelated to historical association, as a criterion for preservation, and the idea of maintaining buildings, with adequate safeguards against damaging change, for continued current use rather than for exhibition.

Appleton began the Society with a membership of eighteen and few resources beyond his own time, energy, and modest income. In the subsequent sixty-four years, the organization has grown to a membership of more than 2,500 and has acquired through gift or purchase some sixty properties in five of the New England states, thirty of them in Massachusetts. Some of these properties are opened regularly to the public, others are maintained through private occupancy, but all are preserved for the future. Some of the buildings have significant historical associations, but all of them have a strong claim to survival on the basis of their

architectural merit.

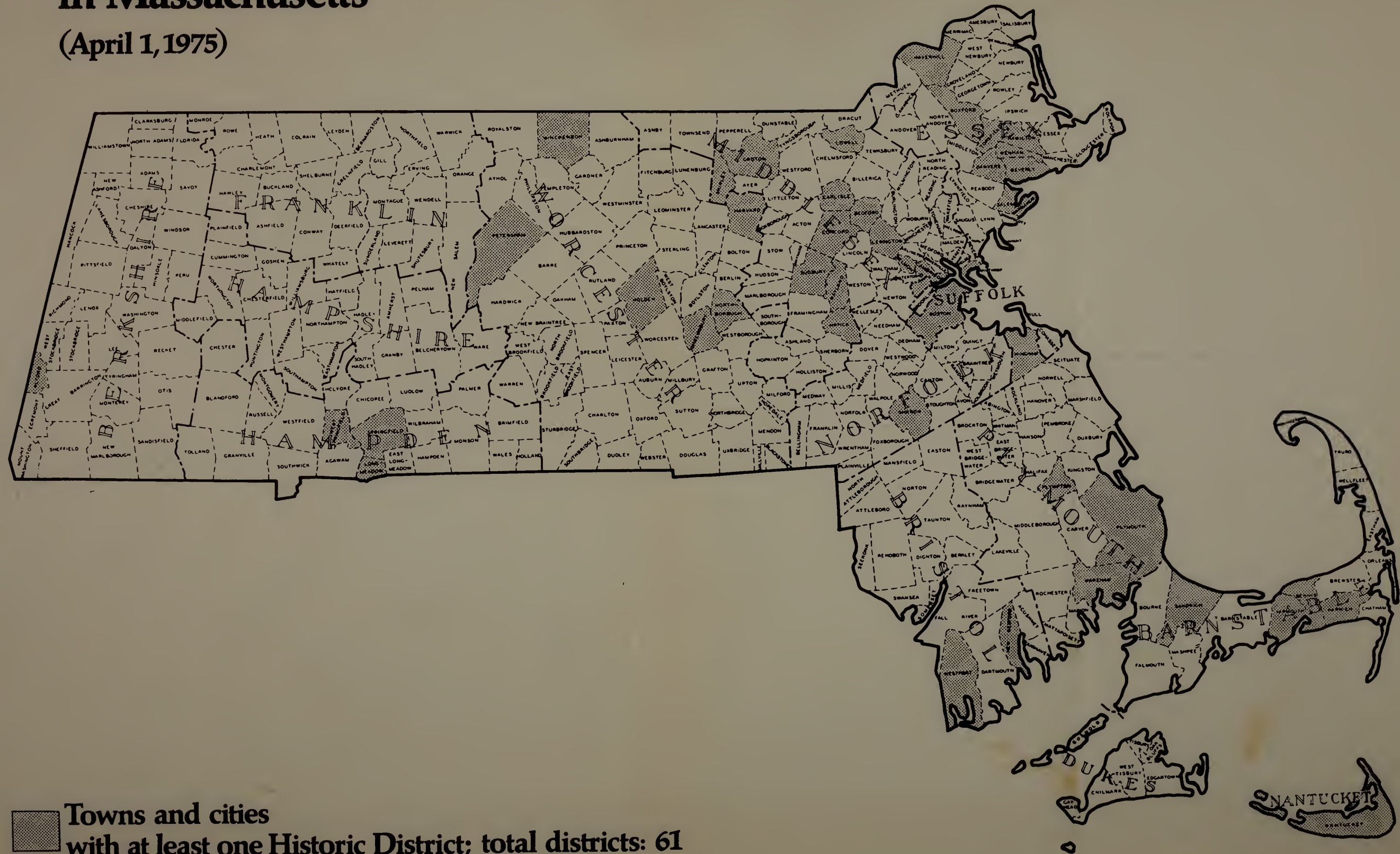
Until the formation of the Massachusetts Archaeological Society in 1939, little or no attention had been given to the preservation of prehistoric sites and artifacts in the Commonwealth. Since that time, the Society has grown to be an important force in the study of archeology both in Massachusetts and throughout the New England region. Through the efforts of its members, who include both professionals and knowledgeable amateurs, some 1500 sites have been identified and their significance documented. Of these over 60 have been excavated under the direction of the Society's research teams (A map and listing of these sites follows this section.). Artifacts recovered from these sites, illustrating four distinct periods of prehistoric culture in the New England area, are displayed at the Massachusetts Archaeological Society's Bronson Museum in Attleboro.

The first direct involvement of state government with historic preservation in Massachusetts came in 1955 when the legislature, with the approval of the Massachusetts Supreme Court, passed special acts establishing historic districts for Beacon Hill and Nantucket. In 1960, an enabling act, Chapter 40C of the General Laws, was passed, outlining standard procedures by which any Massachusetts community might establish an historic district and a local historic district commission. Chapter 40C was substantially amended in 1971; at that time the procedures for administration of districts were clarified, and new provisions were added, allowing local options on the degree of control to be exercised over a given district. To date, some forty Massachusetts cities and towns have established historic districts (the total of which now stands at fifty-eight), and district procedures have been initiated in another forty.

Historic preservation was clearly recognized as a public responsibility by two pieces of legislation enacted in 1963. The first -- Chapter 9, Sections 26-28, of the General Laws -- created the Massachusetts Historical Commission and gave it the duties of compiling an inventory of the Commonwealth's historic assets, certifying as Massachusetts Historic Landmarks properties of outstanding historical or architectural significance, and providing technical assistance to the general public in matters concerning preservation. A subsequent amendment made the Commission the Commonwealth's official agency for implementation of the National Historic Preservation Act. The second piece of legislation -- Chapter 40, Section 8D -- allows any Massachusetts community, by vote of its City Council or town meeting, to establish a local historical commission, charged with identifying, preserving, and developing the historic assets of the city or town. Thus far, over 200 local commissions have been established. Liaison between the Massachusetts Historical Commission and local historical commissions and cooperation among the local commissions themselves are creating an effective state-wide network of public preservation agencies.

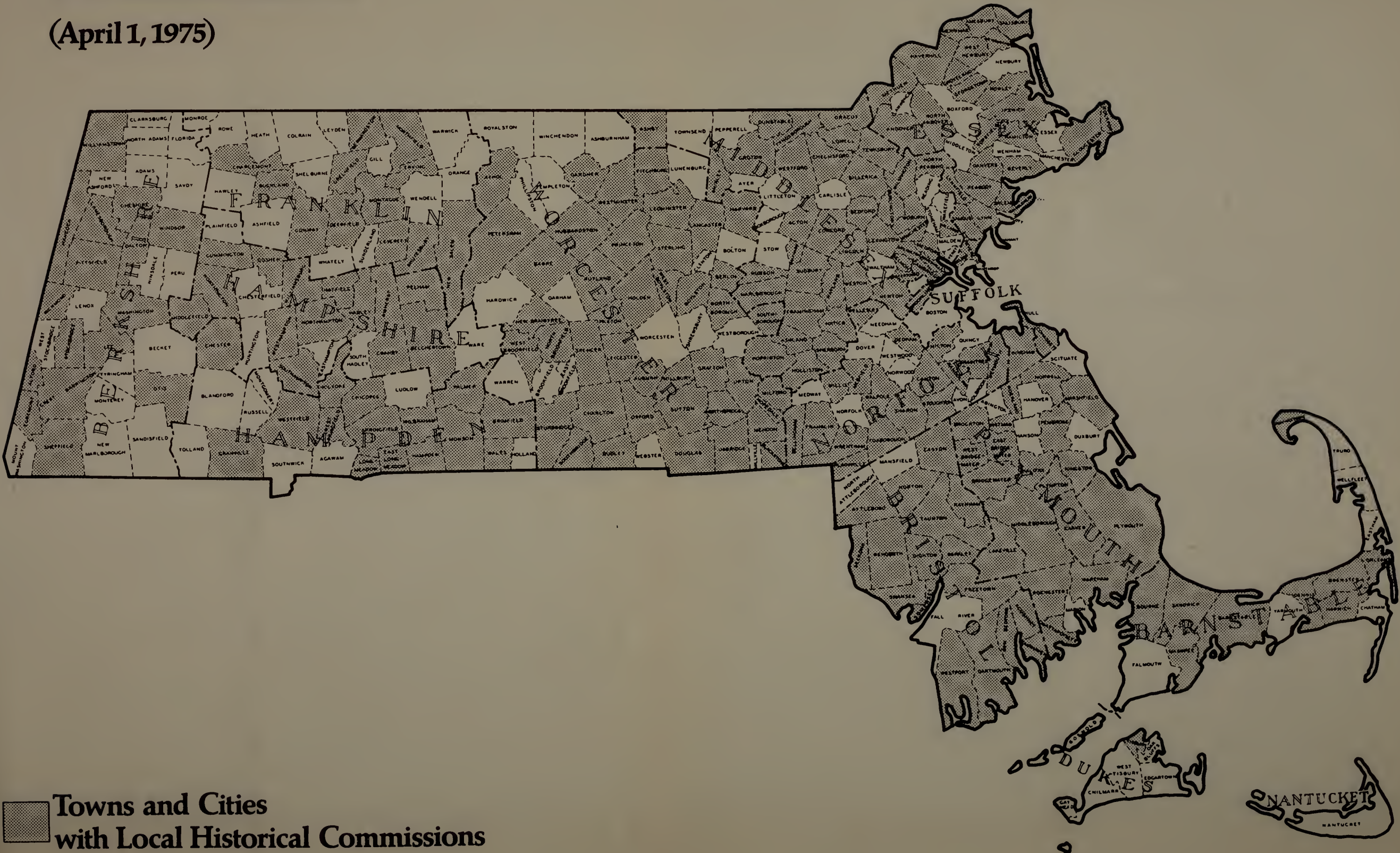
Local Historic Districts in Massachusetts

(April 1, 1975)



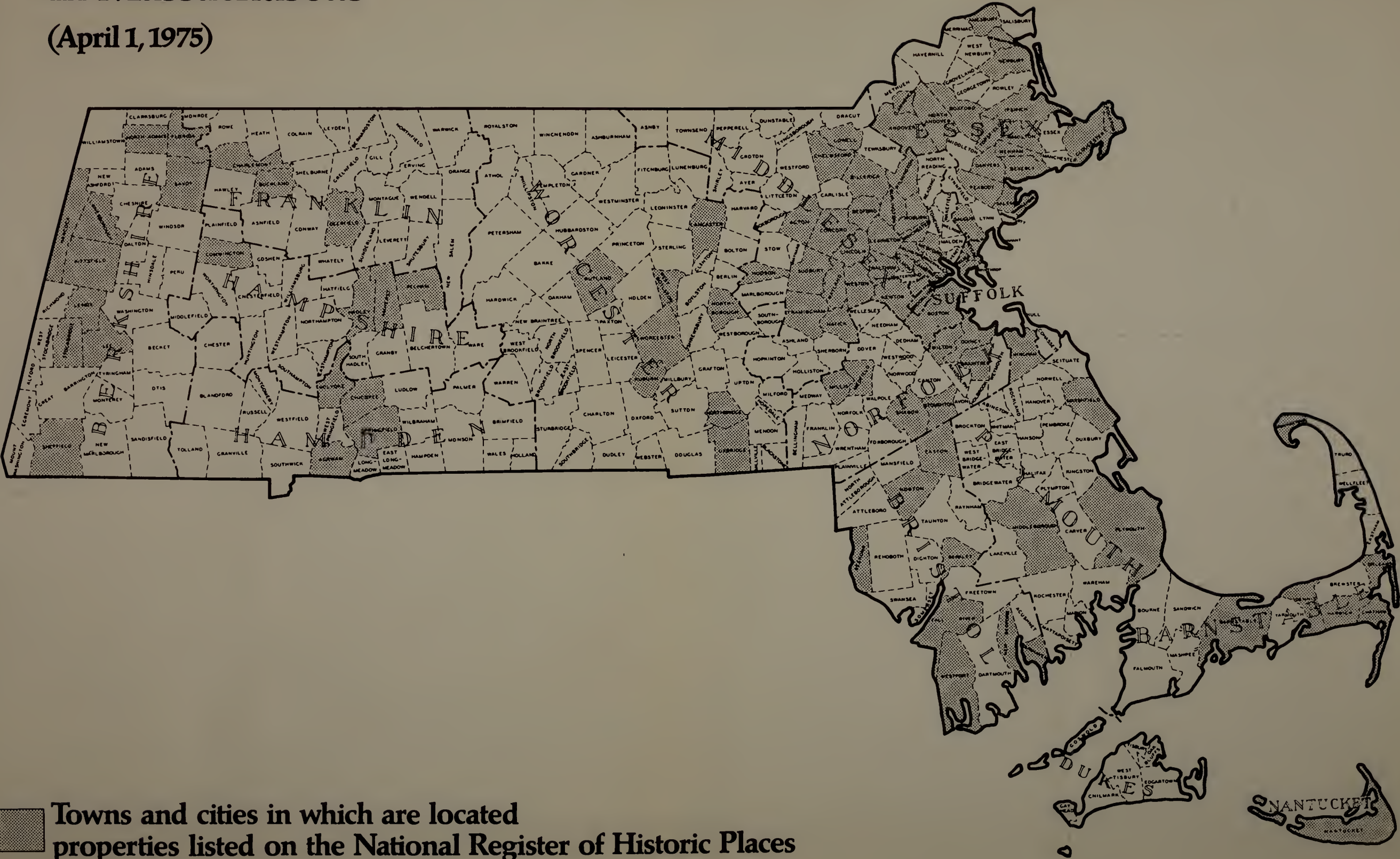
Local Historical Commissions in Massachusetts

(April 1, 1975)



National Register Properties in Massachusetts

(April 1, 1975)



Archeological Sites in Massachusetts

The following summary lists the archeological sites in Massachusetts that have been excavated by the Massachusetts Archaeological Society. The list of sites is organized by county and is depicted on the map facing this page. For locations of specific towns or cities, see the large state map at the beginning of this volume.

Barnstable County

Hemenway site: a village and clam shell heap site in Eastham, woodland period.

Peaked Hill site: a lithic industry site in Provincetown, late archaic period.

Baylor Hill site: a burial site in Wellfleet, possibly from the late archaic period.

Hillside site: a small camp site in Truro, from the late archaic-early woodland periods.

Holden site: a lithic and ceramic industry site in Truro, early woodland - late archaic transition period.

Cliff site: a camp and lithic industry site in North Truro, transitional period from late archaic - early woodland.

Cabral site: a camp site, in North Truro, of the woodland period.

Coburn site: a camp and burial ground in East Orleans during transition stage of late archaic and early woodland.

Purcell site: a burial site in West Yarmouth, middle - late woodland period.

Bristol County

Boats site: a camp site in Dighton during transitional period of late archaic and early woodland.

Sweet's Knoll site: a small camp site in Dighton during transitional period of late archaic - early woodland.

Boats site II: a camp site in Dighton, continuous occupation from early archaic to woodland.

Bear Swamp site: a camp site in Berkley, in late archaic and early woodland periods.

Sabatia Plains site: a small camp site in Taunton during early archaic and late archaic.

Bear Swamp site II: a village site in Berkley, late archaic period.

Dukes County

Howland site: a camp - shell-heap site in Chilmark during transition from late archaic to woodland period.

Hornblower site II: a camp site in Gay Head during late woodland period.

Pratt site: a camp site in Tisbury during late woodland period.

Cunningham or Lagoon Pond site: a camp site in Tisbury during middle and late transition period.

Vincent site: a seasonal camp site in Vineyard Haven during late archaic - early woodland periods

Peterson site: a camp site in Chilmark during middle woodland period.

Essex County

Stickney site: a stone industry site in Andover during transition from archaic to woodland periods.

Foster's Cove site: a camp site in Andover during late archaic - early woodland periods.

Camp Maud Eaton site: a camp site in Andover during the late archaic - early woodland periods.

Neck Creek site: a shell-heap camp site in Ipswich during late archaic - early woodland period.

Johnson's Spring site: a camp site in Peabody during late archaic - early archaic periods.

Indian Roger site: a camp site in Andover during late archaic - early archaic period.

Bull Brook site (revisited): a camp site in Ipswich during paleo - Indian period.

Hampden County

Westfield Quarry site: a quarry in Westfield during woodland period.

Wilbraham Quarry site: a quarry in Wilbraham during transitional period between late archaic and woodland periods.

Middlesex County

Pantry Brook site: a continuous-occupation camp site in Sudbury-Concord area during late archaic - early woodland period.

Shell Heap site: a village site in Concord during transition between archaic and woodland periods.

Heard Pond Indian site: a village site in Wayland during late archaic - early woodland period.

Eaton site: a lithic industry site in North Reading at late archaic period.

Mansion Inn site: a burial site in Wayland during late archaic period.

Nantucket County

M-52-3 site: a village site in Nantucket during the woodland period.
 Squam Pond site: a camp site in Nantucket, period undetermined.
 Hughes' site: a burial site in Nantucket during the late archaic - early woodland period.
 Herrecater site: a camp site in Nantucket during late archaic - early woodland period.

Norfolk County

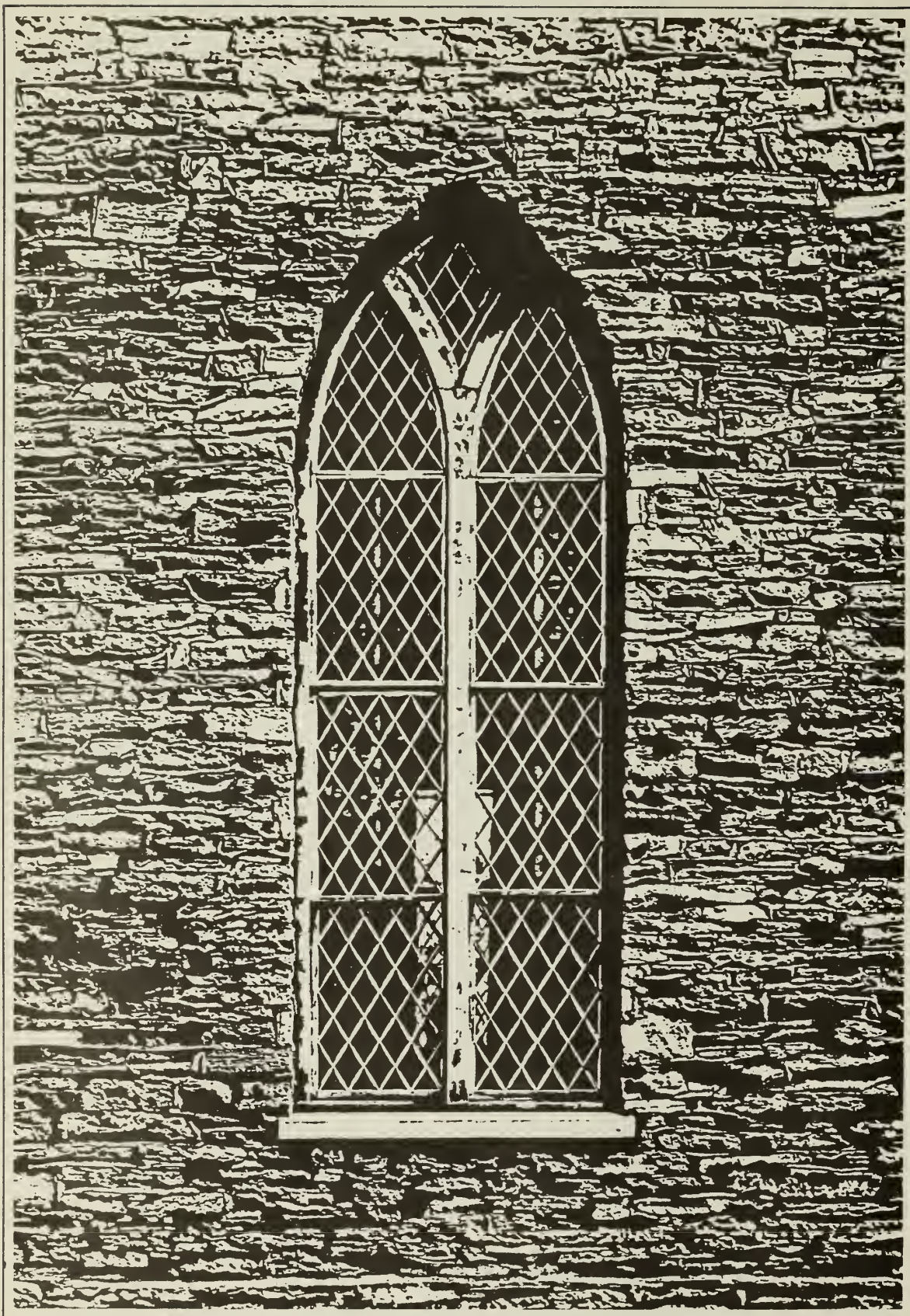
Eagle Dam site: a camp site in Wrentham during transitional period between archaic and woodland periods.
 Brook Meadow site: a seasonal camp site in Canton primarily during late archaic period, some early archaic occupation.

Plymouth County:

Nook Farm site: a camp site in Plymouth during the late archaic period.
 Swan Hold site: a camp site in Carver during transition period of late archaic and early woodland.
 Titicut site: a burial site in Bridgewater of contemporary period.
 Wapanucket site: a burial site in Middleboro, during historic - contemporary period.
 Rochester site: a lodge site in Rochester from early woodland period.
 Indian Hill site: a camp site in Middleboro during the woodland period.
 Hawes site: a burial site in Lakeville of the late archaic period.
 Seaver Farm site: a village site in Bridgewater, continuous occupation from early archaic to woodland period.
 Swan Hold site: a camp site in Carver, during the early archaic period.
 North Hill March site: a camp site in Duxbury, during the early woodland period.

Worcester County

Dolly Bond Quarry site: a quarry and lithic manufacturing site in Millbury, late archaic - early woodland period.
 Mill River site: a camp site in Mendon during early and late archaic periods.
 Quaboag Burial site: a burial site of the transitional period.
 Horne Hill site: a (soapstone) lithic industry site in Millbury during late archaic period.



St. Luke's Episcopal Church, Lanesborough

Philosophy of the Massachusetts Historic Preservation Program

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The Massachusetts historic preservation program is based on the premise that local involvement in preservation is both desirable and necessary for full recognition and protection of the state's historic assets. The mechanism for achieving this involvement is the establishment of an official local historical commission in each of the 351 cities and towns in the state. 208 such commissions had been established by June 1974, 113 of them in the preceding fifteen months. With this network of local commissions across the state, the primary role of the Massachusetts Historical Commission becomes that of a resource agency and clearinghouse for local preservation planning activity.

The Massachusetts preservation program is modeled on the Federal program established by the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966. Just as the Office of Archeology and Historic Preservation in the National Park Service delegates responsibility to historic preservation offices in each of the fifty-five states and territories, so the Massachusetts Historical Commission delegates responsibility to local historical commissions in the 351 cities and towns of the state. Each commission is expected to conduct an inventory of local historic resources and to develop an official local preservation plan, including recommendations for historic districts and for National Register nominations. The National Park Service grant program is an integral part of this process. All National Register properties are encouraged to apply for grants, and the limited funds available are allocated so that every city or town with an eligible grant project receives some measure of assistance. In communities where several projects are eligible, the local historical commission helps to determine priorities for funding.

Few local historical commissions in Massachusetts can afford their own professional staffs, but the opportunities for securing professional advice and assistance are increasing. As the Massachusetts Historical Commission's budgetary situation improves, its staff will be able to serve the needs of local commissions better than in the past. Similarly, as local planning boards and regional planning agencies add expertise in preservation to their staffs, the professional resources available to local historical commissions will improve. Meanwhile, these commissions are doing a remarkable job with local knowledge and talent and are ensuring a broad base of preservation involvement throughout the state.

Since Massachusetts has traditionally been a private preservation state, the state historic preservation program has had to give first priority to increasing the public sector's involvement in preservation. The need for public involvement is particularly acute now that Federal and state laws require public review of the impact of projects on historic resources and other aspects of the environment. Local historical commissions play a vital role in this review process in Massachusetts, in that their inventory information forms the basis of the state historic inventory and in that they are the official spokesmen for their communities on historic preservation matters.

The fact that the Massachusetts preservation program has emphasized public-sector involvement does not mean that private preservation activity is being ignored. On the contrary, local historical societies often are the prime movers for the establishment of local historical commissions and provide much of the manpower for the work of these commissions, particularly inventory. The grant program reinforces the efforts of private historical and preservation organizations by making financial assistance available for preservation work on their National Register properties. Since the Massachusetts Historical Commission encourages widespread participation in the grant program, and since the private sector has traditionally been far more active in preservation than the public sector, the majority of preservation grants in Massachusetts go to private organizations. While the amounts are small, often they are as much as an organization can afford to match in any one year.

All aspects of the Massachusetts historic preservation program are designed to reinforce the basic philosophy of widespread local involvement in preservation. The results of this philosophy are beginning to become evident, as each unit in the network of local historical commissions, historic district commissions, private historical societies, and preservation organizations engenders its own programs and develops further interest and support. The need now is to increase the level of expertise throughout the Massachusetts preservation network so that the most informed decisions and value judgments may be made at every step of the preservation process. With active, informed preservationists in every community in the state, and with specialized professional expertise available for them to draw on when needed, the Massachusetts preservation program will be as solid as any in the country, as befits the state's rich historical heritage.

Relationship of Preservation Planning to Other State Planning

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The preservation planning process in Massachusetts consists of the identification of properties of historic, architectural, and archeological significance (primarily through inventories conducted by local historical commissions), the recording of the locations of these properties on United States Geological Survey maps in the Massachusetts Historical Commission office, and the review of project plans against the Commission's inventory maps and files whenever a publicly funded or licensed project could potentially have an impact, however small, on an historic resource. National Register properties and local historic districts are included on the inventory maps so that a single review will reveal their existence as well as that of properties in the general inventory.

The relationship of this process to other state planning comes primarily through the State Clearinghouse, which circulates information on all Federally funded or licensed projects, and through environmental assessment forms circulated under the State Environmental Protection Act. In addition, some state agencies (particularly the Department of Public Works and the Department of Natural Resources) maintain direct contact with the Massachusetts Historical Commission because of the volume and potential impact of their projects. By state law, notice of public hearings on urban renewal projects must be sent to the Commission together with a map of the project area, although such notification now duplicates the notice provided under State Clearinghouse and Environmental Protection Act procedures.

The State Clearinghouse is part of the Office of State Planning and Management in the Executive Office for Administration and Finance. It serves as a coordinating body to ensure that the Federally funded projects of one department are compatible with the programs of other departments. Project descriptions and location maps are circulated to all potentially interested state agencies together with notification forms on which concurrence or non-concurrence may be indicated and explanatory comments made. Since proposed projects pass through the State Clearinghouse at the earliest stage of planning, review for impact on historic properties can be meaningful, because projects can be changed far more easily in the planning stage than in the design or construction stage. In addition to protecting historic properties that may otherwise be endangered, the State Clearinghouse review process gives the Massachusetts Historical Commission a chance to communicate aspects of its program to other state agencies, regional planning commissions, and local planning boards.

Regulations under the Massachusetts Environmental Protection Act call for an environmental assessment form to be filled out for all publicly funded or licensed projects; this form is then reviewed by relevant state agencies. If a negative effect appears, a full environmental impact report must be prepared. The state law is administered with cognizance of the requirements of the National Environmental Policy

Act (NEPA), so that projects involving both Federal and state funds do not require two environmental impact statements. The Massachusetts Historical Commission reviews environmental assessment forms, environmental impact reports, and environmental impact statements (both draft and final) under NEPA. As in the case of State Clearinghouse reviews, the process is a beneficial one in more ways than the direct protection of threatened historic properties. The opportunity to increase the preservation awareness of other state agencies, local agencies, and consultants is a valuable fringe benefit of environmental review procedures.

The Office of the Secretary of Environmental Affairs administers the State Environmental Protection Act. Also in the Executive Office of Environmental Affairs is the Department of Natural Resources, which administers state forests and parks, conservation programs, and outdoor recreation programs. The Department is the resource agency for local conservation commissions (just as the Massachusetts Historical Commission is for local historical commissions) and is the State Liaison Office for the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation's Land and Water Conservation Fund. Because of the close parallels between the work of the two agencies, the Commissioner of Natural Resources (or his designee) sits as a member of the Massachusetts Historical Commission. Since planning for open space conservation and outdoor recreation must coordinate with planning for historic preservation, and vice versa, there is a close relationship between the Massachusetts Historical Commission and the Office of Planning in the Department of Natural Resources. Specific projects (such as those funded by BOR) are, however, generally reviewed through the State Clearinghouse rather than directly.

The Department of Public Works, part of the Executive Office of Transportation and Construction, is the state road-building agency. With the implementation of the Department's Action Plan, environmental effects of proposed highways are given consideration far in advance of design and construction, and there is ample opportunity to protect historic properties. Problems arise only when a community does not have a local historical commission and/or an adequate inventory of its historic resources. In such cases, the Department or its environmental consultant is encouraged to hire a qualified professional to conduct a thorough historic-architectural-archeological survey of the highway corridor.

The Department of Community Affairs, part of the Executive Office of Communities and Development, is responsible for housing, urban renewal, and planning programs throughout the state. The Department sees that notices of urban renewal hearings are sent to the Massachusetts Historical Commission, as required by state law; notice of housing and planning projects generally comes through the State Clearinghouse. There is need for greater direct communication between the Department of Community Affairs and the Massachusetts Historical Commission, particularly with regard to the integration of historic preservation planning with comprehensive general planning on a statewide, regional, and local basis. This communication is needed regardless of whether the Executive Office of Environmental Affairs is ultimately responsible for land-use

planning in Massachusetts. Delay, in the initiation of full-scale land-use planning in Massachusetts at least has one fringe benefit -- the opportunity to bring the state historic inventory further to completion, so that the Historical Commission's input will be more than a token one, as it would have been until fairly recently.

Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and Executive Order 11593 involve review procedures similar to those described above, with the additional element of direct contact with Federal agencies and the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation. The Department of Housing and Urban Development has had more Section 106 cases in Massachusetts than any other Federal agency, principally because so many National Register properties (especially in Boston) are located in or near urban renewal areas. There has also been frequent contact with the Federal Highway Administration because of road construction projects. Since the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation delegates responsibility so fully to the Massachusetts Department of Natural Resources, there has been no direct contact thus far with BOR.

Although the BOR situation is unusual, most dealings with Federal agencies also involve a state or local agency that will ultimately execute a project. For highways, this agency is the Massachusetts Department of Public Works; for urban renewal projects in Boston, it is the Boston Redevelopment Authority; for housing projects, it is often the Massachusetts Housing Finance Agency. With Federal agencies as with state and local agencies, the more experience there has been with historic preservation review procedures, the easier future dealings will be (in terms of understanding the factors involved, if not of resolving impasses or removing adverse effects).

New Federal and state legislation and experience in dealing with it have brought preservation planning in Massachusetts finally to the point of being really effective. With the simultaneous expansion in the number of local historical commissions and in the amount of inventory work accomplished, the Massachusetts Historical Commission can at last see tangible results from the system it has been espousing for nearly a decade. The next step, besides filling gaps in the historical commission network and in the inventory, is to work more closely with the cities and towns (either directly or through the Department of Community Affairs or regional planning agencies) in integrating historic preservation planning with comprehensive general planning.

Major Preservation Problems

The principal problem confronting historic preservation in Massachusetts in 1974 is lack of funding--both for the state historic preservation program and for the preservation needs of historic properties in the state. All other problems are subservient to this one.

The Massachusetts Historical Commission has been underfunded since its inception. Its expenditures from state appropriations have never exceeded \$30,000 per year, despite the wealth of historic resources in the state and despite the extent of the Commission's statutory responsibilities. Without Survey and Planning grants from the National Park Service, matched in large part by donated services (particularly the survey and planning expenditures of the Cambridge Historical Commission), the state historic preservation program could never have developed to the extent it has.

As this is written, in June 1974, it appears likely that the Massachusetts Historical Commission's state appropriation for the coming fiscal year will be doubled, to the level of \$96,000. This increase will enable the funding of a state position for the Commission's Executive Director and another for a Preservation Officer, to be in charge of preservation planning and environmental reviews. Secretarial assistance, which has never been funded by the state, will also be provided for. The result, once the new positions are filled, will be an expanded state historic preservation program with far greater potential for assisting local historical commissions and coordinating with state, regional, and local planners. Other staff needs, such as the one that now exists for a full-time professional archeologist, will have to be met either in future state budgets or through the interim use of Federal reimbursement funds.

The physical preservation needs of Massachusetts historic properties have also traditionally been underfunded. The National Park Service grant-in-aid program has never provided more than a token percentage of the state's grant requirements. Even the Fiscal Year 1974 apportionment of \$575,250, which was more than five times as much as the state had received in any previous year, represented only three percent of the need documented on the Fiscal 1974 apportionment warrant. Without substantially increased Federal funding, many of the state's historic properties will continue to deteriorate for lack of required preservation maintenance. Large projects especially will suffer, both because there simply are not enough funds available and because the state cannot fund a few large projects in just a few cities without undermining the basic philosophy of its program--maximum preservation involvement on the local level.

Even the present grant program, which has the potential of satisfying the needs of small projects throughout the state, is encountering problems. These problems are the result of the delays and red-tape that are inherent in most Federal programs but that make little sense for projects where small amounts of Federal aid are involved. A loosening of Federal review

requirements for individual grant projects (especially those receiving less than \$10,000 in Federal assistance) would help the situation enormously.

At the same time, there is a need for increased professionalism in all aspects of the state historic preservation program, particularly at the local level, where local historical commissions engage in survey and planning activities and where grant transferees undertake preservation and restoration projects. An increase in the size and diversity of staff at the Massachusetts Historical Commission, possible with an increased state budget and continuing Federal survey and planning funds, will increase the availability of professional expertise to local preservationists and will reassure the National Park Service that proper professional standards are being followed in all aspects of the state program.

Other means of preserving historic properties besides direct grant assistance need to be promoted in Massachusetts. Preservation easements are underutilized in the state, despite the existence of good legislation authorizing their use. Tax incentives--Federal, state, and local--are another possibility, but more remote because of the absence of legislation or precedent. The idea of property tax abatements for historic preservation must be handled delicately in Massachusetts, because the state is already overburdened by the local property tax, and any further reduction in a community's tax base is not likely to be looked upon with favor.

Despite these problems, many of which can be solved through increased funding for staff and grants, the Massachusetts historic preservation program is firmly established, with permanent roots in more than half of the 351 cities and towns in the state. On that kind of foundation, and with the increases in state and Federal funding that appear on the horizon, the future of the state preservation program cannot help but look brighter than the past.

Inventory and National Register Procedures

Purposes of the Inventory

When the Massachusetts Historical Commission was established in 1963, one of the specific duties assigned to it was to compile and maintain an inventory of the historic assets of the Commonwealth. This inventory, as it is collected, filed, and mapped, provides an extensive and comprehensive archival record, affording assistance and information to local, state, and national planners, preservationists, and historians.

Specifically, the inventory provides the information by which the Massachusetts Historical Commission can help defend historic properties from encroachment or destruction by state and/or Federally funded or licensed projects. It provides the basis for evaluation of potential National Register properties and potential historic districts. It is the first step in a local preservation plan, elements of which are then incorporated into a local or regional master plan. It provides material for a comprehensive city or town history.

When published in Volume II of the State Historic Preservation Plan and circulated locally, the inventory will demonstrate its value to communities that have not participated to date and hopefully will create incentive for such participation.

Organization of the Inventory

The Massachusetts Historical Commission depends almost entirely on individual communities for input into the inventory. When the survey was first initiated, Commission staff members attempted a personal overall coverage of the state, resulting in cursory "windshield" surveys because of the limited size of the staff and the overwhelming number of historic properties to be researched and recorded. Experience has shown that local input, under state direction, not only affords greater coverage but also stimulates local interest in preservation. Without local initiative, state and Federal efforts at preservation are often ineffective.

In a few cases, efforts have been made by staff members or outside organizations to make a statewide survey of specialized properties such as military installations or early mills, or in specific fields such as transportation, archeology, literature, and architecture. Generally, however, inventory material is produced by members or associates of local historical commissions.

The Massachusetts Historical Commission supplies inventory forms free of charge to local historical commissions and other authorized organizations or individuals. There are six standard forms, examples of which are reproduced at the end of this section.

The categories covered by the Massachusetts Historical Commission inventory forms, and their definitions, are as follows:

A - Area. A concentration of buildings, structures, sites, burial grounds, and/or monuments and their settings which is geographically definable, unified by historical and/or architectural associations, and is preserved sufficiently to maintain the atmosphere of an earlier time. Examples: a town common complex; a mill and workers' housing area; a local historic district (established under Massachusetts General Laws, Chapter 40C).

B - Building. A structure created to shelter any form of human activity, by nature or design intended to be immovable. Examples: residence; church; railroad station; school; town hall; factory.

C - Monument. An object commemorating a person or event; a marker designating distances or boundaries; usually permanently located. Examples: See Form C.

D - Archeological or Historic Site. The location of prehistoric or historic events; location of remnants of prehistoric or historic life. Examples: battleground; Indian camp ground; foundations of an early building.

E - Burial Ground. Public or private area used solely for burying the dead.

F - Structure. A work constructed by man, occasionally but not usually movable; not designed to shelter human life as its primary purpose. Examples: See Form F. Also - barn; vessel; vehicle.

Printed instructions accompany the forms when they are distributed to the organizations or individuals who are conducting the survey. Also, further explanation and instruction are given at Massachusetts Historical Commission preservation workshops, at local meetings in each community, and to individuals who call or visit the Commission office.

Greatest stress is laid on the importance of the historical significance section of the form, good mapping, and a clear photograph, aside from the obvious need for vital statistics such as address and name of property. It is asked that the theme checked on the form be expanded and justified in the space allotted to historical significance. The Massachusetts Historical Commission also recommends that each community think in terms of "areas" wherever possible, such as town commons, mill complexes, or summer resort settlements, in locations where there has been one or more historic reason for habitation, where the area exemplifies the town's growth, or where the area is cohesive architecturally. In such cases, an "A - Area" form is filled out, with completed individual forms for significant properties within the area attached to, and submitted with, the Area form.

The Massachusetts Historical Commission uses United States Geological Survey quadrant maps (scale of 1:24,000) to locate the submitted inventory forms, numbering each map location to match its numbered form. The USGS maps have been cut and permanently mounted by city or town, since Massachusetts

municipalities are all contiguous, with no open county or township area between them. This process facilitates quick retrieval when information concerning historic properties is required in a specific community. Also indicated by color-code on each USGS map are properties in the National Register (including National Historic Landmarks), properties having any type of preservation restriction, local historic districts, Massachusetts Historic Landmarks, and archeological sites.

Simultaneously with mapping, the forms are recorded in a card file by city or town and categorized under the same headings as the forms. This file provides an index to the more extensive and detailed inventory forms. The latter are filed in numerical order, again by city or town.

Criteria

The Massachusetts Historical Commission does not dictate hard and fast criteria by which to judge historic properties on a local basis. It requests, however, that any property that is inventoried have either historical or architectural significance (or both), at least locally, and suggests that the National Register cut-off date for age of properties (at least fifty years) is generally a good guideline. Also, the Commission requests that no inventory be done on a property whose architectural integrity has been completely invalidated by alterations or neglect, unless the property retains a very real historical significance through its associations.

Each local group is reminded that the historical significance should include all fields of endeavor and that contributors in any way to the social, economic, and artistic growth of the community should be noted by an inventory of properties associated with these contributors. Emphasis is not placed on the "genealogy" of a building but rather on the contribution made by the owner or occupant.

Sample Inventory Forms

Examples of the six Massachusetts inventory forms follow on the next pages.

FORM A - AREA SURVEY

MASSACHUSETTS HISTORICAL COMMISSION
Office of the Secretary, State House, Boston

Form numbers in this area	Area no.
1 through 10	A

1. Town Pleasantville

Name of area (if any) Town Common

3. General date or period 19th century

4. Is area uniform (explain):

in style? no (miscellaneous)

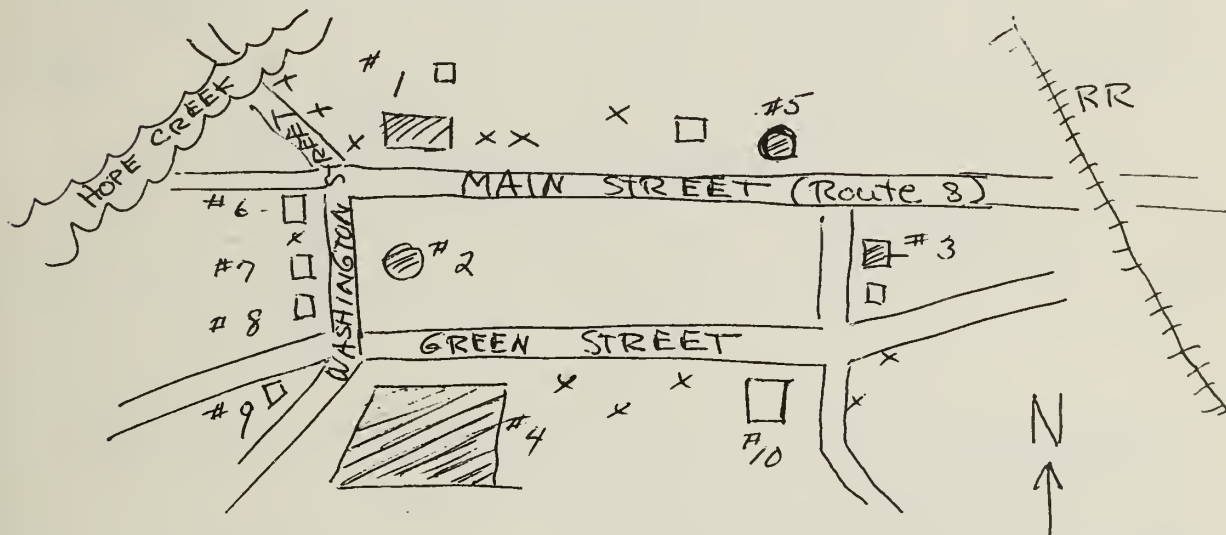
in condition? yes (well maintained)

in type of ownership? no (multiple)

in use? no (multiple)

2. Photo (3x3" or 3x5")
Staple to left side of form
Photo number _____

5. Map. Use space below to draw a general map of the area involved. Indicate any historic properties for which individual reports are completed on Forms B thru F, using corresponding numbers. Show street names (including route numbers, if any) and indicate north. Indicate with an "x" existing houses not inventoried on Form B.



DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE
USGS Quadrant
Smithville - #132
MHC Photo no. 73-14

6. Recorded by Mary Jones

Organization Pleasantville Historical Commission

Date 2/10/73

(over)

7. Historical data. Explain the historical/architectural importance of this area.

Pleasantville and its Town Common was established in 1802. The town was settled by families who moved to the western part of the Commonwealth to farm. Some residents later worked in the early comb factory or made lace in their homes, a holdover from the British cottage industries. The Common retains its 19th c. atmosphere, largely because of the fine trees and the architecture of the surrounding structures which are little altered since they were built. There have been no intrusions of contemporary architecture around the Common.

The Town Common was the early center of town activity, which has now moved away, leaving the Common as it is today.

8. Bibliography and/or references such as local histories, deeds, assessor's records, early maps, etc.

J.M. Bartlett, History of Pleasantville, Mass., Boston 1972

Pleasantville Assessor's Records, Town Hall

1831 map of Pleasantville, surveyed by John G. Hales

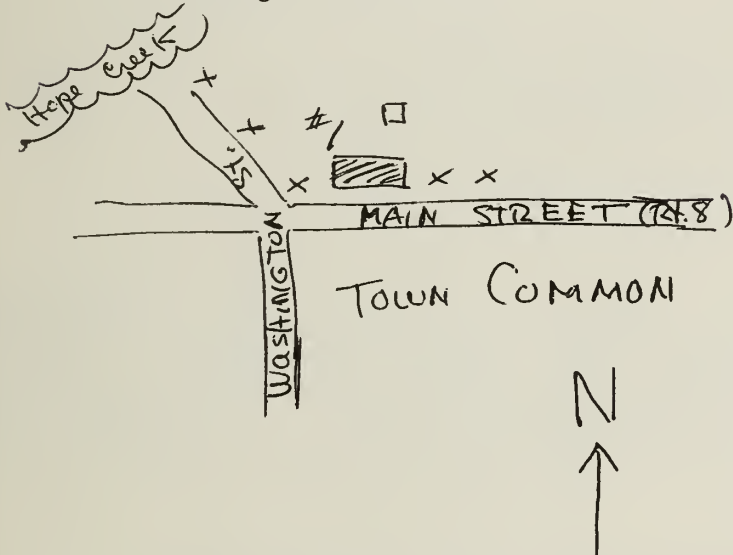
FORM B - BUILDING

MASSACHUSETTS HISTORICAL COMMISSION
Office of the Secretary, State House, Boston

In Area no.	Form no.
A	1

2. Photo (3x3" or 3x5")
Staple to left side of form
Photo number _____

4. Map. Draw sketch of building location
in relation to nearest cross streets and
other buildings. Indicate north.



DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE
USGS Quadrant
Smithville - #132
MHC Photo no. 73.15

1. Town Pleasantville
Address 100 Main Street
Name Perkins Manse
Present use residence
Present owner John A. Smith
3. Description:
Date 1830
Source Assessor's Records
Style Greek Revival
Architect Isaac Damon
Exterior wall fabric clapboard
Outbuildings (describe) carriage house
Other features 2-story portico with four
Ionic columns
rear wing
Altered added Date c. 1840
Moved _____ Date _____
5. Lot size:
One acre or less _____ Over one acre x
Approximate frontage 200 feet
Approximate distance of building from street
75 feet
6. Recorded by Mary Jones
Pleasantville Historical
Organization Commission
Date 2/10/73

(over)

7. Original owner (if known) Samuel Perkins

Original use residence

Subsequent uses (if any) and dates same

8. Themes (check as many as applicable)

Aboriginal	<u> </u>	Conservation	<u> </u>	Recreation	<u> </u>
Agricultural	<u> </u>	Education	<u> </u>	Religion	<u> </u>
Architectural	<u> X </u>	Exploration/ settlement	<u> </u>	Science/ invention	<u> </u>
The Arts	<u> </u>	Industry	<u> X </u>	Social/ humanitarian	<u> </u>
Commerce	<u> </u>	Military	<u> </u>	Transportation	<u> </u>
Communication	<u> </u>	Political	<u> X </u>		
Community development	<u> </u>				

9. Historical significance (include explanation of themes checked above)

Built by Samuel Perkins in 1830 and designed by the famed architect, Isaac Damon, this Greek Revival house is large and elaborate, reflecting the prosperity of Mr. Perkins who owned the comb factory, designing new machines to be used there. He was also very active in town affairs and both he and his son were State Representatives to the Massachusetts General Court. The Perkins family lived in the house for over 100 years, until it was sold to the present owner.

10. Bibliography and/or references (such as local histories, deeds, assessor's records, early maps, etc.)

J.M. Bartlett, History of Pleasantville, Boston 1972

Assessor's Records, 1830-1930

Alice Perkins, The Perkins Family History, New York 1970

FORM C - MONUMENTS
 MASSACHUSETTS HISTORICAL COMMISSION
 Office of the Secretary, State House, Boston

STATUE MONUMENT x
 BUST FOUNTAIN
 MARKER MILESTONE
 RELIGIOUS SHRINE BOUNDARY MARKER
 GROUP COMPOSITION

Monument has historical connection with the following themes; (See also reverse side)

Agriculture	Commerce/Industry
Architecture	Science/Invention
Art/Sculpture x	Travel/Communication
Education	Military Affairs x
Literature	Indians
Music	Development of Town/City
Government	Religion/Philosophy

Town Pleasantville

Street Washington Street, or the Common

Name Civil War monument

Original Owner Town of Pleasantville

Present Owner same

Date Constructed 1890

Date Dedicated 1891

Source of Date engraved on the monument

Designer or Sculptor Cyrus Dallin

Individual or group responsible for monument if other than owner _____

CONDITION: Excellent Good Fair Deteriorated Moved* Altered _____

IMPORTANCE of monument to area: Great Moderate None _____

MONUMENT endangered by: _____

LOCATION OF INSCRIPTION: Plaque on wall, house, post; base of monument; other _____

ENTIRE INSCRIPTION on monument: _____

This monument was erected in honor of those valiant men who left Pleasantville to fight in the Civil War, thus contributing to the maintenance of the Union.

DESCRIPTION**

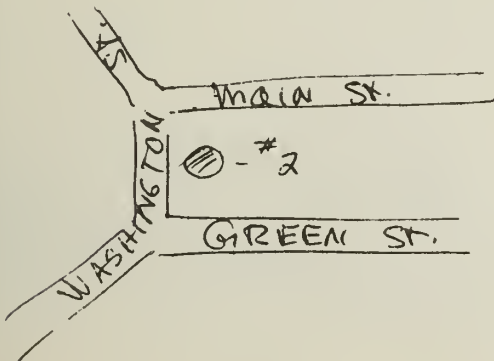
Foundation: Pedestal Base None Material polished granite
 Material: Bronze Stone Marble Granite Wood Other statue
 Setting (surroundings) on the Town Common, surrounded by landscaping
 Size (approximate) c. 3 feet square base by 10 feet tall

Indicate location of monument on map below

Recorder Mary Jones

For Pleasantville Historical Commission
 (Name of Organization)

Photo 73.16 Date Received 2/10/73



* If the monument has been moved, indicate the original location on the reverse side.

** Describe the monument on the reverse side.

GIVE A BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF SUBJECT MATTER AND/OR DESIGN OF MONUMENT

The imposing monument has a square base of polished granite with a bronze statue of a Civil War soldier standing on top, leaning on his rifle.

GIVE A BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF HISTORIC IMPORTANCE OF MONUMENT. (Refer to the theme circled on front of form. What happened? Who was important? Comment)

The statue represents a tribute to the unusually large number of farmers and laborers who left Pleasantville to fight in the Civil War. It is important not only because of its commemorative value but also because of the excellent work of the well known sculptor, Cyrus Dallin, best known for his Indian statue, "Appeal to the Great Spirit," now standing in front of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

REFERENCE: (Where was this information obtained? What book, records, etc.)

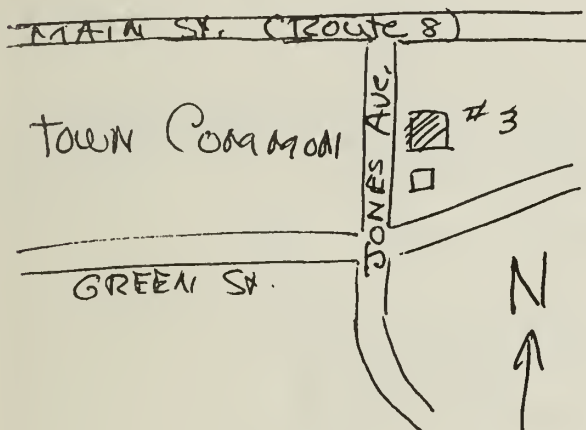
Life of Cyrus Dallin, Boston Globe 2/29/71

J.M. Barlett, History of Pleasantville, Boston 1972

MASSACHUSETTS HISTORICAL COMMISSION
Office of the Secretary, State House, Boston

2. Optional photo (3x3" or 3x5")
Staple to left side of form
Photo number _____

5. Map. Sketch site location in relation to nearest cross streets, structures, other sites, buildings, natural features. Indicate north and note approximate distance from town center.



DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE
USGS Quadrant
Smithville - #132
MAS no. 73.17

1. Town Pleasantville

Location Jones Avenue

Name Site of first meetinghouse

Owner(s) Town of Pleasantville

3. Research:

Advanced _____ Initiated _____ Possible X

Is site available for investigation? yes

Estimated time needed for research 2 months

4. Cultural period:

Prehistoric-Aboriginal

Paleoindian _____

Archaic _____

Woodland-Ceramic _____

Unknown _____

Historic

Aboriginal-contact _____

European _____

Colonial _____

Modern X (1830)

6. Value:

Importance:

Permanent _____

National _____

State _____

Local X

Transitory _____

Known X

Unknown _____

7. Historical significance -- use reverse side of form

8. Recorded by Mary Jones

Organization Pleasantville Hist. Commission

Date 2/10/73

(over)

9. Historical significance. Include explanation of cultural period; value (assign permanent value to sites that might be reconstructed for teaching purposes; transitory value applies to prehistoric sites now in the process of, or needing, excavation); importance (such as association with important persons or events).

This site, where the first meetinghouse was built immediately after the settlement of Pleasantville, might possibly be the location of a reconstruction of the original building in the future. Excavation of the site may unearth pottery fragments, etc., used as fill in the basement area when the meetinghouse was demolished in 1830 and a larger new one built elsewhere in town. The importance of the site lies in its associative values to the town.

10. Bibliography, references and/or documentation.

1831 map of Pleasantville, surveyed by John G. Hales

J.M. Bartlett, History of Pleasantville, Boston 1972

FORM E - BURIAL GROUNDS
 MASSACHUSETTS HISTORICAL COMMISSION
 Office of the Secretary, State House, Boston

Religious affiliation non-denominational

Owner Town of Pleasantville

Who has further information about burial ground?

Cemetery Commission

(Address) Town Hall

What type information: lot plans inscriptions
 gravestone descriptions other

1. Town Pleasantville

Location Green Street

Name Old Burying Ground

Condition: Well kept up ☒ Neglected
 (if neglected, explain how)

Approx. number gravestones 60

Earliest death date 1801

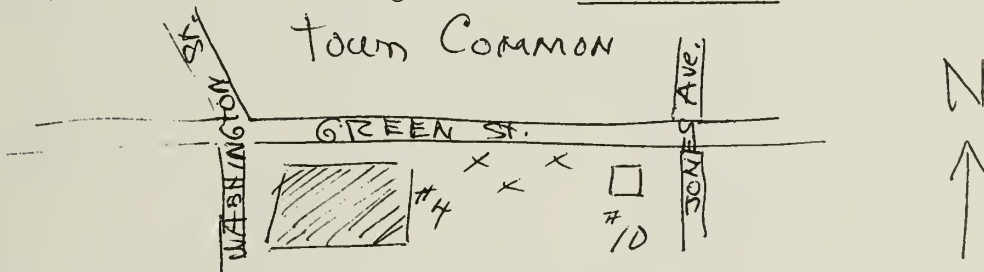
Most recent death date 1850

2. HISTORY OF BURIAL GROUND

The earliest gravestone is that of a small child who moved here with her parents at the time the town was settled. The town soon outgrew the small plot allotted to burials and established another cemetery elsewhere. Many of the early settlers are buried here, some of whom died from a smallpox epidemic.

3. MONUMENTS-Overall condition: upright fallen (approx. no.) good inscription legibility

4. MAP: Footage from street c. 10 feet



Name of Recorder Mary Jones Organization Pleasantville Historical Commission Date 2/10/73

For MHC use: USGS Smithville - #132 Form # 4

A. Architectural or Sculptural Monuments

[illegible]

Key		Death		Stone			Photo			
Words	Status	Last Name	First Name	Sex	Date	Age		Shape	Design	Condition
Here lies		Smith	Anne	F	1801	4	rect.	plain	good	73.19

[illegible]

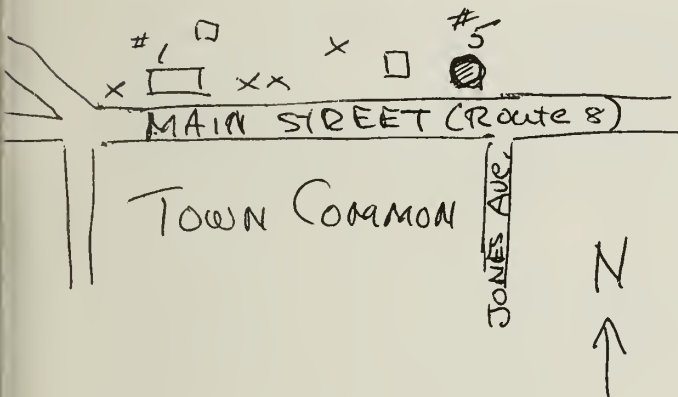
FORM F - STRUCTURE

MASSACHUSETTS HISTORICAL COMMISSION
Office of the Secretary, State House, Boston

In Area no.	Form no.
A	5

2. Photo (3x3" or 3x5")
Staple to left side of form
Photo number _____

4. Map. Draw sketch of structure location in relation to nearest cross streets, buildings, other structures, natural features. Indicate north.



1. Town Pleasantville

Address 116 Main Street

Name Bradford Water Tower

Present use water tower

Present owner Town of Pleasantville

3. Type of structure (check one)

bridge	_____	pound	_____
canal	_____	powder house	_____
dam	_____	street	_____
fort	_____	tower	<u>X</u>
gate	_____	tunnel	_____
kiln	_____	wall	_____
lighthouse	_____	windmill	_____

other _____

5. Description

Date 1869

Source Assessor's Records

Construction material Shingle exterior

Dimensions 25' diameter; 50' high

Setting Surrounded by trees and bushes

Condition good

6. Recorded by Mary Jones

Organization Pleasantville Historical Commission

Date 2/10/73

DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE
USGS Quadrant
Smithville - #132
MHC Photo no. 73.20

(over)

7. Original owner (if known) Town of Pleasantville

Original use water tower

Subsequent uses (if any) and dates same

8. Historical significance.

This tower was originally just a bare standpipe. Mr. Charles Bradford, a wealthy abuttor, objected to its appearance and had an architect design a more pleasing exterior covering of shingle, with arched openings around the top section and a peaked roof. This was done at Mr. Bradford's expense and included fine landscaping around the base. The new appearance was a great asset to the Town Common.

9. Bibliography and/or references such as local histories, deeds, assessor's records, early maps, etc.

J.M. Bartlett, History of Pleasantville, Boston 1972

National Register Procedures

As is the case with the statewide survey, the Massachusetts Historical Commission requests local input for submissions to the National Register, and for the same reasons: first, the wish to arouse local public interest in, and support for, historic preservation; second, the lack of sufficient Commission staff to do the original research. Also, it is felt that local historical commissions and societies, in many cases, can locate and evaluate properties worthy of submission that might otherwise be overlooked.

As a prerequisite to National Register submission, the Massachusetts Historical Commission requests that a community-wide inventory be completed or at least well begun, on which an evaluation to establish priorities for National Register submissions can be based on both local and state levels. Exceptions are made to the above procedure when an historic property is threatened or is in need of preservation funding, and National Register protection or status is an immediate requirement.

The Massachusetts Historical Commission also requests that submissions be processed through the local historical commission, if one exists. When a property is being considered for the National Register, notices are sent by the state commission to the owner and the local historical commission, soliciting their comments. After receipt of these comments, the eligibility of the property for the Register is voted upon by the members of the Massachusetts Historical Commission who serve as a state review body.

It should be noted here that, again as in the case of the inventory, the Massachusetts Historical Commission advocates the submission of historic districts or areas rather than individual properties, whenever justified and possible. By this means, far greater protection is afforded through relatively little additional effort.

If a property is voted eligible, the Commission staff processes the material that has been submitted. This processing includes condensing, expanding or rewriting the submitted text, checking for accuracy, and locating the property by UTM on the required USGS map. The typed National Register Form 10-300 and all the assembled material are then reviewed by the appropriate professional member or members of the review body and sent to the State Historic Preservation Officer for his signature. The nomination is then sent by certified mail to the National Register in Washington, accompanied by a notification in the transmittal letter if immediate attention is needed.

When the Massachusetts Historical Commission is notified of the acceptance of a nominated property by the National Register, publicity is sent out, and the interested parties are notified. When time and budget allow, it is hoped that Massachusetts can follow the example of other states and

award a certificate to owners of National Register properties. It is also hoped that future state legislation will create a State Register of Historic Places, automatically including all properties on the National Register plus others such as the present Massachusetts Historic Landmarks. These properties would be afforded the same protection and benefits on a state level as are now offered on the Federal level.



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